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ART. I.—*The Life of General Washington, Commander in Chief of the American Forces during the War which established the Independence of his Country, and first President of the United States. Compiled under the Inspection of the Honourable Bushrod Washington, from Original Papers bequeathed to him by his deceased Relative. To which is prefixed an Introduction, containing a Compendious View of the Colonies planted by the English on the Continent of America. By John Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States. Vols.* I. *and* II. (1804), *and* III. (1805). *4to 1l. 11s. 6d., and 8vo 10s. 6d., each volume, boards.* Phillips.

THE predominant feelings with which we perused these volumes, were fatigue and disappointment: fatigue, at the prolixity of the narration; and disappointment, at the variance between the contents of the work and the promise of the title-page. Moreover, the joy which we were ready to indulge on the accomplishment of our task, was greatly repressed by an advertisement of the publisher, threatening us with one, if not two, more volumes, which we presume will make their appearance in the course of the spring. The same advertisement, however, promises, 'as an appendix to a future volume of the English edition, an original and most important communication from an illustrious statesman in this country, relative to the secret causes which brought about the peace of 1783.'

With whatever veneration the character of Washington may be regarded, it will probably be asked by most of our readers, why his biography should be swelled to so unreasonable a bulk? It may possibly lessen their surprise without adding to their satisfaction, to inform them, that the pages before us contain rather a history of America, than a life of the father of her in-

dependence. A delineation of the private life of this illustrious man may, we presume, be reasonably expected in the volumes which are yet to appear, and which may perhaps on that account excite much more lively interest than has been raised by the incidents recorded in the first part of the work.

The present compilation, we are informed (Pref. p. xviii), has been chiefly extracted from the immensely voluminous collection of letters which passed to and from the commander in chief during the war, and which have been carefully preserved. The object of the learned chief-justice, in his selections from this correspondence, seems to have been to illustrate the events of the war by the light of manuscripts of which the authority is unquestionable; and to present the public with a distinct view of the opinions, the schemes, and the feelings, of this illustrious man, while environed with a frightful complication of difficulties and dangers, which, though they often rent his heart with anguish, never seem to have disconcerted his firmness, or clouded his discrimination.

Of these papers, however, we are greatly tempted to wish that the author had made a more limited and judicious use. We are well acquainted with the difficulty of selection; and are on that very account more seriously disposed to regret the impatience of the subscribers*, which has dragged the present publication into premature existence, disfigured by imperfections which leisure might have reformed, and loaded with redundancies which deliberate judgment might have retrenched. The public have certainly some reason to complain, that the burthen of literature has been increased by the addition of a large book, merely because the precipitation of certain individuals has denied the author time to compose a small one. But good and evil are in this world inseparable. The facility of communication which contributes so essentially to the diffusion of knowledge, and forms the pride and the happiness of modern days, also threatens frequently to overwhelm learning with its own weight. It has multiplied beyond the example of former times the stock of materials easily accessible to every literary adventurer in the lottery of fame and profit. In no departments of literature is its diseased and dropsical exuberance more plainly visible than in those which are occupied by the compilers of biography and history. It is difficult to contemplate without dismay the alarming growth of their labours:

> Oblita modi millesima pagina surgit
> Omnibus, et multâ crescit dammosa papyro. Juv.

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* Preface, page xxv.

To exhibit the character of general Washington in such a manner as to secure to it the admiration it deserves, it was necessary to present the reader with a minute and faithful display of all the difficulties which obstructed his way; and of the feebleness of his means, compared with the effects they accomplished under his direction. Perhaps there are few characters in the records of history whose greatness is more independent than that of Washington. His fame is a plant which rooted itself in the midst of gloom and tempest: it was seldom warmed in its growth by the fostering sunshine of good fortune; but it clung to the rock with a closeness proportioned to the violence of the storm which assailed it. On his own heroic equanimity alone did he rely for support in the midst of disaffection and dismay. From the serenity and firmness of his countenance were his exhausted, spiritless, and naked soldiers, to draw that courage which only could invigorate them to resistance against an enemy superior in numbers, highly disciplined, and completely appointed.

'At the head of troops, most of whom were perpetually raw, because they were perpetually changing; who were neither well fed, paid, clothed, nor armed; and who were generally inferior, even in numbers, to the enemy; he derives no small title to glory from the consideration that he never despaired of the public safety, that he was able at all times to preserve the appearance of an army, and that, in the most desperate situation of American affairs, he did not, for an instant, cease to be formidable.'—'To preserve an army when conquest was impossible, to avoid defeat and ruin when victory was unattainable, to keep his forces embodied, and suppress the discontents of his soldiers, exasperated by a long course of the most cruel privations, to seize with unerring discrimination the critical moment when vigorous offensive operations might be advantageously carried on, are actions not less valuable in themselves, nor do they require less capacity in the chief who performs them, than a continued succession of battles.' P. xvi.

Such was Washington; and such it is the object of this work to represent him. It will, however, be very difficult to persuade us that this object might not have been accomplished fully to the satisfaction of his most ardent admirers by one, or, at the utmost, two modest octavos; nor have we been able to discover to what purpose these volumes have been swelled by the details of every battle and every skirmish, collected and related with the laborious accuracy and minuteness of a gazette. The description of military operations can rarely be rendered interesting to the generality of readers, unless recommended by the charms of historical painting; nor is it likely that they should ever be useful to those whose profession is war, unless he who relates them was himself a soldier, and present at the

engagements he describes. It were devoutly to be wished that the compilers of history either knew, or would recollect, the advice of old marshal Schomberg to bishop Burnet. He earnestly cautioned the historian to beware of encumbering his narrative with a minute and detailed account of battles: the multitude could seldom be amused or instructed by such relations; and in all the histories he had ever read, he declared there was generally some error in the military descriptions, which rendered them entirely useless to military men. Had this very sensible admonition been present to the mind of our author, we should possibly have been relieved from many a weary page, concerning the fall of a redoubt, or the fate of a detachment; nor should we have been regaled with such liberal extracts from the annual registers, and the dispatches and correspondence of the day. The tormenting prolixity with which the expedition to fort Du Quesne is related (Vol. II. page 80 & seqq.), may exhibit a fair specimen of the severe experiments made by the author on the patience of his readers in the course of this performance.

The Introduction, which presents a compendious history of the growth and maturity of the British colonies in America, occupies the whole of the first volume. It commences with the discovery of Newfoundland by John Cabot, in 1498; and concludes with the expulsion of the French from Canada, and the peace of 1763.

'The work appeared to the author to be most sensibly incomplete and unsatisfactory, while unaccompanied by such a narrative of the principal events preceding our revolutionary war, as would make the reader acquainted with the genius, character, and resources of the people about to engage in that memorable contest. This appeared the more necessary, as that period of our history is but little known to ourselves. Several writers have detailed very minutely the affairs of a particular colony, but the *desideratum* is a composition which shall present, in one connected view, the transactions of all those colonies which now form the United States.

'The materials for the complete execution of such a work are perhaps not to be found in America; and, if they do exist, their collection would require a length of time, and a labour of research, which neither the impatience of the public, nor the situation of the author, would enable him to bestow on the subject. Yet he thought it more eligible to digest, into one volume, the most material of those facts, which are now scattered through several books, than to commence his history abruptly with the war between Great Britain and her colonies.' P. XX.

If this be not a necessary, it is at any rate a very acceptable, introduction to a history of the American revolution. Though it is deficient in the graces of style, and in that charm of nar-

ration which invites and detains the attention; though it exhibits little of that enlightened spirit of philosophy which converts facts into precepts, and out of the records and documents of the annalist extracts a digest of moral and political wisdom; yet the nature of the subject, and the sober good sense which predominates in its management, cannot but communicate to it a considerable portion of interest. It is impossible not to be gratified with a view of the infancy of those states which have contributed so powerfully to the commercial strength of this country; which from the moment of their existence displayed that inflexible attachment to freedom which ended in their separation from Britain; and in which many have affected to see the future asylum of liberty, when the gigantic predominance of some particular power shall deny her a longer residence in Europe. One most important lesson is to be learned from this account of the British colonies:—that, of the numerous manufacturers of constitutions who were proud to shew their wisdom by providing governments for the new-born states, none were found to succeed so happily, and to consult so effectually the practical convenience of the settlers, as those who followed most nearly the model of their native country.

The curiosity of our philosophical readers will probably be gratified by an account of the original constitution of Carolina, which, it is well known, was furnished by Locke. This province was granted by the crown, in absolute property, to several noblemen, one of whom was lord Clarendon. The proprietors made several unsuccessful attempts to provide their new settlement with a government which should secure its prosperity: till,

'Dissatisfied with all their own systems, the proprietors at length applied to the celebrated Locke, for the plan of a constitution adapted to their infant colony. They supposed that this profound and acute reasoner on politics as well as other subjects, must necessarily be deeply skilled in the science of governing men. He framed for them a body of fundamental laws, which were afterwards, in 1669, approved and adopted. By them a palatine was to be chosen for life, from among the proprietors, who was empowered to act as president of the palatine court, composed of all those who were entrusted with the execution of the powers of the charter. A body of hereditary nobility was created, to be denominated landgraves and caciques, the former to be invested with four baronies, consisting each of four thousand acres, and the latter to have two, containing each two thousand acres of land. These estates were to descend with the dignities for ever.

'The provincial legislature, denominated a parliament, was to consist of the proprietors, and in the absence of any one of them his place was supplied by his deputy chosen by himself; of the nobility; and the representatives of the freeholders of every district.

These discordant characters were to assemble in one apartment, and vote as a single body. This parliament could initiate nothing. The bills to be laid before it were first to be prepared and assented to in the grand council, composed of the governor, the nobility, and the deputies of the proprietors, who were invested also with the executive power. At the end of every century, the laws were to become void without the formality of a repeal. Various judicatories were erected, and an infinite variety of minute perplexing regulations were made. This constitution, which was declared to be perpetual, soon furnished an additional evidence to the many afforded by the human race, of the great but neglected truth, that experience is the only safe school in which the science of government is to be acquired, and that the theories of the closet must have the stamp of practice before they can be received with implicit confidence.

'The duke of Albemarle was chosen the first palatine; but he did not long survive his election, and lord Berkeley was appointed his successor. The other proprietors were also named to high sounding offices, and Mr. Locke was created a landgrave.' P. 203.

Under this government the colony lingered till 1714, during which period a deplorable course of experience had plainly shewn its inefficiency for all the purposes of political union. The proprietors at last consented to surrender their charter for a sum of money: the proprietary government was, of course, finally dissolved; and the people of Carolina joyfully exchanged the visionary system of the philosopher, for the solid and effectual protection of the crown. 'The colonists, now pleased with their situation, turned their attention to domestic and agricultural pursuits, and the face of the country soon evidenced the happy effects which result from contented industry, directed by those who are to receive its fruits.' Vol. I. P. 373.

We cannot resist the temptation to insert an extract from a very curious address presented by the general court of Massachussets to Charles the Second on his restoration. The strange cant, the uncouth 'Babylonish dialect,' in which it is conceived, strongly illustrates the spirit of the times, and the sentiments of a people whose faith has been described by Burke as 'the protestantism of the Protestant religion.' It commences thus:

'Most Gracious and dread Sovereign,—May it please your majesty, (in the day wherein you happily say, you now know that you are again king over British Israel) to cast a favourable eye upon your poor Mephiboseths now, and by reason of lameness, in respect of distance, not until now appearing in your presence, we mean New England, kneeling, with the rest of your subjects, before your majesty, as her restored king. We forget not our ineptness as to these approaches. We at present own such impotency, as renders us unable to excuse our impotency of speaking unto our lord the king; yet, contemplating such a king, who hath also seen adver-

sity, that he knoweth the hearts of exile, who hath been himself an exile, the aspect of majesty, thus extraordinarily circumstanced, influenceth and animateth exanimated outcasts (yet outcasts as we hope for truth) to make this address unto their prince, hoping to find grace in his sight: we present this script, the transcript of our loyal hearts, into your royal hands.' Vol. I. p. 177.

We are also impelled to transcribe, for the amusement of our readers, the following very curious circumstance. James the Second, being resolved to unite the colonies of New England, appointed sir Edmund Andros their governor; who, being ordered to annex Connecticut to Massachussets, repaired, in October 1687, with his suite and some regular troops, to Hertford, where the assembly was then sitting, demanded the charter, and declared the government to be dissolved.

'The assembly were extremely reluctant, and slow with respect to any resolve to surrender the charter, or with respect to any motion to bring it forth. The tradition is, that governor Treat strongly represented the great expense and hardships of the colonists, in planting the country: the blood and treasure which they had expended, in defending it both against the savages and foreigners; to what hardships and dangers he himself had been exposed for that purpose; and that it was like giving up his life, now to surrender the patent and privileges so dearly bought and so long enjoyed. The important affair was debated, and kept in suspence until the evening, when the charter was brought and laid on the table where the assembly were sitting. By this time, great numbers of people were assembled, and men sufficiently bold to enterprise whatever might be necessary or expedient. The lights were instantly extinguished; and one captain Wadsworth, of Hertford, in the most silent and secret manner, carried off the charter, and secreted it in a large hollow tree fronting the house of the honourable Samuel Wyllys, then one of the magistrates of the colony. The people appeared all peaceable and orderly. The candles were officiously relighted; but the patent was gone, and no discovery could be made of it, or of the person who had conveyed it away.' Vol. I. p. 231.

This venerable elm was long afterwards deemed sacred by the people.

We shall close our extracts from this part of the work with a fact which, though of no great immediate importance, may be considered as remarkable in the history of America. We are told by the author, in a note to page 305, Vol. I., that

'So early as the year 1692, the difference of opinion between the mother country and the colonies, on the great point which afterwards separated them, made its appearance. The legislature of Massachussetts, employed in establishing a system of laws under their new charter, passed an act containing the general principles respecting the liberty of the subject, which are asserted in Magna

Charta, and in which was this memorable advice: "No aid, tax, tallage, assessment, custom, loan, benevolence, or imposition whatsoever, shall be laid, assessed, or imposed, on any of their majesty's subjects, or their estates, on any pretence whatsoever, but by the act and consent of the governor, council, and representatives of the people assembled in general court." It is almost unnecessary to add, that the royal assent to this act was refused.'

The events of the war which ended in the expulsion of the French from Canada, have been so often told, and are so universally known, that we think they might, without injury to the design, have been either entirely omitted, or at any rate much more concisely related.

In our account of the remaining volumes we feel by no means disposed to follow the method of the author, and to drag our readers through all the campaigns of the American war. We shall select such particulars only as strictly relate to general Washington, and form them into a brief sketch of the portion of his life which is exhibited in that part of the publication at present before us.

'George Washington, the third son of Augustine Washington, was born in Virginia, at Bridges Creek in the county of Westmorland, on the 22d of February, 1732. He was the great grandson of John Washington, a gentleman of very respectable family in the north of England, who had emigrated about the year 1657, and settled on the place where young Mr. Washington was born.

'Very early in life the cast of his genius disclosed itself. The war in which his country was then engaged against France and Spain, first kindled those latent sparks which afterwards blazed with equal splendour and advantage; and at the age of fifteen he urged so pressingly to be permitted to enter into the British navy, that the place of midshipman was obtained for him. The interference of a timid and affectionate mother suspended for a time the commencement of his military course.

'He lost his father at the age of ten years, and received what was denominated an English education; a term which excludes the acquisition of other languages than our own. As his patrimonial estate was by no means considerable, his youth was employed in useful industry: and in the practice of his profession, as a surveyor, he had an opportunity of acquiring that information respecting vacant lands, and of forming those opinions concerning their future value, which afterwards greatly contributed to the increase of his private fortune.' Vol. II. p. 1.

When not more than nineteen years of age, at a time when the militia were to be trained for actual service, he was appointed one of the adjutants-general of Virginia, with the rank of major. The duties of this situation he soon ceased to perform, being chosen by the lieutenant-governor of Virginia as a proper

person to present a remonstrance to the commandant of the French forces on the Ohio, on the subject of their encroachments on the extensive tracts which lie to the westward of the British settlements; and which, though then unoccupied by the colonists, were deemed to be included in their original grants from the crown. This perilous and laborious service he undertook with alacrity, and performed with perseverance, intrepidity, and address. A curious and interesting account of his journey through the frightful wilderness which lies between Virginia and the French forts on the Ohio, is preserved in the report of his proceedings which he presented to the lieutenant-governor. (Vol. II. p. 5.)

He was soon after appointed lieutenant-colonel in a regiment raised for the protection of Virginia: and made his first essay in arms by conducting a small expedition against a detachment of the enemy; which, though it terminated unfortunately, afforded him an opportunity of displaying such courage as was noticed by a vote of thanks from the legislature. After a short retirement to his estate, occasioned by his disgust at the degradation of the provincial officers, who were allowed no rank when serving with those commissioned by the crown, he was invited back into the service by general Braddock, who made him his aide-de-camp. After the defeat and death of that officer, he was appointed to the command of a regiment, and by the same commission was nominated commander-in-chief of all the forces of Virginia; in which character he made unremitting exertions to organize more effectually the defence of the colony, and to protect its frontiers from the tomahawk and scalping-knife of the Indians. When the evacuation of fort Du Quesne by the enemy had relieved his country from immediate danger, he resigned his commission, retired to domestic privacy, and was married to the widow of a Mr. Curtis, 'a lady who to a large fortune and a fine person added those amiable accomplishments which fill with silent felicity the quiet scenes of private life.'

'From the period of his marriage, the attentions of colonel Washington, who had retired to Mount Vernon, were for several years principally directed to the management of his estate, which had now become considerable, and which he greatly improved. He continued, however, a most respected member of the legislature of his country, in which he took an early and a decided part in the opposition made to the principle of taxation asserted by the British parliament. He was chosen by the independent companies formed through the northern parts of Virginia, to command them; and was elected a member of the first congress that met at Philadelphia, in which body he was very soon distinguished as the soldier of America. He was placed on all those committees whose duty it

was to make arrangements for defence; and when it became necessary to appoint a commander in chief, his military character, the solidity of his judgment, the steady firmness of his temper, the dignity of his person and deportment, the confidence inspired by his patriotism and integrity, and the independence of his circumstances, combined with that policy which actuated New England, and induced a wish to engage the southern colonies cordially in a war, to designate him in the opinion of all as the person to whom the destinies of his country should be confided.

'He was unanimously chosen "General and Commander in Chief of the army of the United Colonies, and all the forces now raised or to be raised by them."' Vol. II. p. 298.

The events of Washington's life during the period of his commanding the forces of the states are so notorious, that it will not be necessary to furnish our readers with any account of them. We shall therefore only remark, that the last of these volumes concludes with the campaign of 1778, in which Philadelphia was evacuated by the British troops.

In this part of the work the author has interwoven a copious account of every material event in the course of our contest with America; so that, as we have remarked above, he appears before the public rather in the character of an historian than a biographer. The only circumstance in which his performance can be said to differ from a history of America, is the lavish insertion of the letters and remonstrances of Washington to the congress, and of his general orders, addresses, and exhortations, to his forces. We cannot say that we were much enlightened or entertained by his extracts. A judicious and sparing use of these papers might have heightened the interest of the narrative, by a display of the almost insurmountable difficulties with which the general was embarrassed, and the temperate firmness with which he encountered and subdued them. But the author does not appear to have been easily wearied with the labour of transcription. He has crowded his pages with such large portions of these precious manuscripts, that their chief effect is to excite impatience by vexatious repetition, and to obstruct the progress of the mind, which is hastening forward to circumstances of greater moment. The addresses of the commander-in-chief to his soldiers contain little that has not often been said before, and said better, on similar occasions.

The controversy on the subject of colonial taxation, the opinions prevalent in America respecting the supremacy of the British legislature, and the gradual revolution of sentiment which ended in the assumption of national sovereignty and independence, are stated with considerable ability; though the narration is too much loaded with the addresses, appeals, and remonstrances, of congress, to the crown, the parliament, and

the people, of Great Britain. Let it, however, be remembered, that the author is writing to Americans as well as to Englishmen; that his countrymen may be supposed to regard this part of their history with peculiar fondness and exultation; and that these details may therefore be perused by them, not only without impatience, but with avidity.

Although this work is evidently the performance of an ardent admirer of American independence, we have hitherto remarked none of that furious and intemperate zeal which has frequently distinguished the advocates of that cause whose success he has recorded. Though a sincere patriot, Mr. Marshall cannot be charged with political bigotry and enthusiasm. But a warm attachment to our country is hardly consistent with perfect historical integrity; and the chief-justice has, perhaps unconsciously, admitted some partial statements which an unbiassed lover of truth might be pleased to see corrected. He seems to entertain no very keen sense of cruelty and bad faith except when committed by the British. He has also omitted to stigmatize with the reprobation they deserve, the refusal of congress to allow other prisoners to be returned in exchange for those liberated by the English after the affair at the Cedars (Vol. II. P. 433); and their still more disgraceful resolutions to prohibit the embarkation of general Burgoyne and his forces for England, according to the express stipulations of their surrender at Saratoga, on the unworthy pretext that the convention had been violated on the part of the British by their having omitted to deliver up a few belts and cartouch-boxes! Vol. III. P. 424.

We know not whether the author hoped to exalt his hero by magnifying the skill and conduct of the enemy whom he successfully opposed; but he has shewn considerable anxiety to rescue the character of sir William Howe from the prejudices generally indulged against him in England. (P. 407.) The obligations of America to the sagacity, firmness, and activity of Washington, will readily be admitted: but respecting his antagonist, we believe there is but one opinion in this part of the world; which is, that he contributed nearly as much as Washington to the ruin of the cause of Great Britain, and to the salvation of that of America.

On the style of this performance we have but little to remark: it is frequently hasty and unpolished; in many parts languid, in others somewhat deficient in perspicuity; and it seldom rises above the level of sober, unambitious mediocrity. The fault of the narration is, that it perpetually oppresses and entangles the memory with a multitude of subordinate and needless circumstances.

These pages are also disfigured by some words and expres-

sions which, though they may be perfectly legitimate in the country of the author, will scarcely find an undisputed currency on this side of the Atlantic. We read of '*influential* men,' '*dominant* principles,' and '*demoralizing* systems.' We hear of the *fall* succeeding the *permit* to settle the country. We have '*resemblage*' for 'reassembling.' The writer informs us that the object of punishment was 'to *coerce* obedience;' that the parliament of Carolina 'could *initiate* nothing,' that the recruiting service '*progressed* heavily,' that Massachussets '*produced* a cautious neutrality,' and that general Washington 'possessed too much discernment to be dazzled with the *false brilliant* presented by those who urged the necessity of storming Philadelphia.' If the commander-in-chief really did assure his army that 'any officer, soldier, or corps, which should distinguish *him* or *them*selves,' should meet with notice and rewards, he may be forgiven for neglecting the niceties of language in the tumult of a camp; but his historian will not so easily be excused for admitting such unskilful and inelegant combinations as '*all-important*,' '*all-essential*,' and '*water-force*' for forces employed by water.

We despair of being able to entertain our readers by the production of particular passages, and therefore shall not swell our pages by useless transcription. A few short extracts will be sufficient. The following is from a letter of Washington to a friend in New England, who had expressed some apprehension, occasioned by a report that the malice of an illiberal faction formed against him in congress had driven him to the resolution of resigning his command. It is stamped with the dignity of conscious virtue.

'I can assure you that no person ever heard me drop an expression that had a tendency to resignation. The same principles that led me to embark in the opposition to the arbitrary claims of Great Britain operate with additional force at this day; nor is it my desire to withdraw my services while they are considered of importance in the present contest: but to report a design of this kind is among the arts which those who are endeavouring to effect a change are practising to bring it to pass. I have said, and I still do say, that there is not an officer in the service of the United States that would return to the sweets of domestic life with more heart-felt joy than I should. But I would have this declaration accompanied by these sentiments, that, while the public are satisfied with my endeavours, I mean not to shrink from the cause: but the moment her voice, not that of faction, calls upon me to resign, I shall do it with as much pleasure as ever the weary traveller retired to rest.'

Vol. III. p. 365.

General Conway, who had been a very active enemy of Washington, was engaged in a duel with general Cadwallader,

in which he received a wound, for some time supposed to be mortal. The following letter was addressed to Washington by Conway, when his recovery was despaired of, and when his mind was in a temper which could admit no interest or passion to interfere with truth. It may therefore be read as the purest encomium on the character of the commander-in-chief.

'Sir,—I find myself just able to hold the pen during a few minutes, and take this opportunity of expressing my sincere grief for having done, written, or said any thing disagreeable to your excellency. My career will soon be over; therefore justice and truth prompt me to declare my last sentiments. You are in my eyes the great and good man. May you long enjoy the love, veneration, and esteem of those states whose liberties you have asserted by your virtues.' Vol. III. p. 413.

Washington was in an eminent degree master of those qualities which the desperate situation of his country required in her protector. His temper was subject to no eccentric and irregular impulses; he was exempt from the dominion of that impatient desire for distinction which often loses itself by searching for the shortest way to success. He was content to pursue the happiness of his country through the most rugged and circuitous path. He had a steadiness of good sense, which no combination of mischances could disconcert; and a sober inflexible intrepidity, which forbade him ever to despair. His activity was without rashness, and his valour without tumult or ostentation. He exhibited in a wonderful degree that difficult species of heroism by which Fabricius saved Rome; and which can encounter the clamours of prejudice, ignorance, and temerity, with the same indifference that it defies danger, pain, and death. To these we learn that he added other qualities no less essential to the success of a commander.

'Happily for America there was in the character of Washington, something which enabled him, notwithstanding the discordant materials of which his army was composed, to attach both his officers and soldiers so strongly to his person, that no distress could weaken their affection, nor impair the respect and veneration in which he was held by them. To this sentiment is greatly to be attributed the preservation of a respectable military force, under circumstances but too well calculated for its dissolution.' Vol. III. p. 401.

On the whole, we must allow to this performance the praise of an industrious compilation. Nor does the author appear to claim for it a higher character. It would be unjust not to notice the modesty of his pretensions, and his fears lest the expectations of the public should be disappointed.* We are

* See Preface.

willing to regard these declarations of his diffidence as virtual engagements to render his work more worthy of the public attention, if another edition shall be called for; and this, we think, he cannot more effectually accomplish than by a judicious contraction of its dimensions.

We shall be careful to announce the remaining volumes, as soon as they make their appearance.

ART. II.—*History of the Progress and present State of Animal Chemistry. By W. B. Johnson, M. B. 3 vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Johnson. 1804.*

CURIOSITY has stimulated experimental philosophers to investigate the nature, properties, and constituent parts, of almost every inanimate substance: metaphysicians have treated copiously on the nature and powers of the human mind: anatomists have accurately developed the mechanism of animals: but there seems to be a natural repugnance to explore the component principles of animalized bodies. Any attempt, therefore, to collect the scattered opinions and isolated experiments of the philosophic investigators of animal substances, must be hailed alike by the speculative chemist and the physiologist, as a work calculated to be of primary utility. To the former it should present a mirror in which the imperfections and deficiencies of his science are displayed: to the latter, suggest new analogies, new combinations of medicines to augment their curative powers, and facilitate the progress of the healing art. From the experimentalist, whose mind, ever intent on new discoveries, is devoted to the accurate observation and examination of all the numerous appearances, affinities, and new results, of his operations, little critical arrangement is to be expected. It is the business of the historian, unoccupied by original inquiries, to combine, arrange in chronological order, and collect into a small but powerful focus, detached facts and explanatory opinions, in order to present a complete view of the origin, progress, and actual state, of any science. But what shall we say to the mere historian, who, totally regardless of dates and the natural progress of knowledge, presents us with an irregular mass of incoherent experiments and opinions, translated or transcribed with all that verbosity which an over-anxiety to be perspicuous often erroneously adopts? A protracted history of experiments, in a monotonous style so much more tedious than that of the originals, that it conveys no idea of the idiosyncracy or point in view of the different operators, replete with unimportant repetitions (pages 19, 21, &c.), without any attention to eras, to philological accuracy, and still less to the relative

quantities of the results of chemical analysis—Such, we fear, will be found the present work.

The author, after referring to the system of Dauberton,—a work too modern to be original, and too old to contain the late discoveries,—proceeds to divide the animal substances that have been submitted to any chemical analysis, in the following manner: '1. Fluids: 2. *Solids*: 3. *Hard* Parts: 4. External Parts: 5. *Oils*: 6. Acids: 7. Poisons: 8. *Aromatics*: 9. Colouring Matter: 10. *Concretions*: and 11. Excrements.' (p. 2.) A recapitulation of the component parts of animal bodies; and an appendix of oviparous quadrupeds, insects, &c. terminate the second volume: and the third is 'on *life*—irritability, respiration and animal heat—*death*—putrefaction.'

The division is at once extremely inaccurate, redundant, and incomplete. The terms '*solids*' and '*hard* parts' may serve for the purposes of surgery, but are too inaccurate to be tolerated in the modern language of chemistry. Animal 'oils' rarely or never exist naturally in the fluid state, and therefore might have been treated as 'solids.' 'Aromatics,' under which indefinite term we find only ambergris, castor, civet, and musk, are so nearly allied to animal 'concretions,' that it will only perplex the memory and propagate false notions, to treat them under distinct heads. Almost every animal substance has its peculiar *aroma*, or odoriferous principle; but on that account must not be placed in a distinct division.—Nor do we find more accuracy or perspicuity in the subordinate arrangements. The author presents us, throughout the work, with a crude collection of experiments which are presumed to be 'the actual state of our knowledge,' then subjoins a general recapitulation: thus reversing the order of his title, and the natural progress of human science.

Dr. Johnson, after slightly mentioning the different methods of analysing animal substances, commences with experiments on eggs, which Fourcroy supposes to be coagulated by the magic powers of oxigen. Carradori, however, more correctly shews that oxigen is not even absorbed by the white of eggs; the volume of which is not changed either in the coagulated or liquid state. He attributes coagulation to a change produced by the solvent power of caloric, and the disposition of the integrant parts of the white to obey the force of cohesion.

By analysis the blood is divided into three parts:—1st, The white serum (which contains albumen and gelatin): 2d, The red serum, or colouring matter: and 3d, The fibrin. 'The white serum is more abundant than the fibrin, and the red the least.' Its component parts consist of oxigen, azote, hydrogen, carbon, sulphur, phosphoric acid, soda, lime, iron, and a peculiar aroma. To these we might add caloric; and, however they may be actually *component* parts according to the nature

and variety of our food, it is yet extremely improbable that they are all *essential* or constituent parts of the vital fluid. On this head we know enough of the character of Fourcroy, to regard his avowedly imperfect experiments on the blood of the fœtus, as a *jeu d'esprit*. The membranous matter, or fibrin, of the blood, is separable by rubbing the coagulum between the fingers in water; which carries away the colouring matter, and leaves the real fibrin, that has sometimes been confounded with the coagulable lymph. According to physiologists, fibrin is destined for the purpose of forming and repairing the substance of the muscles. Our author details the causes of the coagulation of the blood (allowing it a vital principle), after the French chemists Parmentier and Deyeux; whose speculations contain nothing which cannot be traced to those of Hunter, Hewson, &c. Dr Johnson seems not to have known the experiments on muscular irritability with the galvanic fluid.

The examination of milk, and its acetous and vinous fermentations, shews, according to Stipriaan, that the greatest quantity of spirit is obtained from the milk of the cow; while Plenek affirms that of the mare, as containing the greater abundance of sugar. The remote component parts of milk are oxigen, hydrogen, carbon, soda, azote, phosphorus, and lime, and some chemists add iron. Then follows (admirable arrangement!) a 'history of milk,' with more desultory experiments, and a pompous account of the peculiar excellence of the Roquefort cheese, made of sheep's and ass's milk. As the author has never tasted it at Roquefort, we can assure him from experience that even there, if he has the palate of an Englishman, he would esteem it very inferior, both in flavour and texture, to the common cheese in Wales.

On the gastric juice, or menstruum in the stomach that facilitates digestion, the experiments of the Italian chemists Carminati, Brugnatelli, and Scopoli, particularly the latter, drawn from French accounts, are very incorrectly related. This fluid, taken from the human body in health, is composed of water neither acid nor alkaline, muriat of soda, and an animal substance said to afford phosphat of ammonia. We subjoin the following extract; which, if not useful against the prevalent disease of empiricism, may perhaps amuse some of our sedentary readers who are troubled with indigestions, &c.

'Substances *insoluble*, or that were not digested in the usual time (three hours) in the stomach, according to Gosse of Geneva.

'Animal substances:—1. Tendinous parts: 2. Bones: 3. Oily or fatty* parts: 4. Indurated white of egg. Vegetable substances:

* This is not to be understood of fat *meat*. Rev.

1. Oily or emulsive seeds: 2. Expressed oils of different nuts and kernels: 3. Dried grapes, and the skins of fish: 4. Rind of farinaceous substances: 5. Pods of beans and pease: 6. Skins of stone fruits: 7. Husks of fruits with grains or seeds: 8. Capsules of fruit with grains: 9. Ligneous stones of fruits, &c.

'Substances *partly soluble*, or parts of which were digested.

'Animal substances:—1. Pork dressed various ways: 2. Black puddings: 3. Fritters of eggs, fried eggs and bacon. Vegetable substances:—1. Sallads of different kinds, rendered more so when dressed: 2. White cabbage less soluble than red: 3. Beet, cardoons, onions, and leeks: 4. Roots of scurvy grass, red and yellow carrots, succory, are more insoluble in the form of sallad than any other way: 5. The pulp of fruit with seeds, when not fluid: 6. Warm bread and sweet pastry, from their producing acidity: 7. Fresh and dry figs. By frying all the substances in butter or oil they became still less soluble (digestible). If not dissolved in the stomach, they are, however, in their passage through the intestines.

'Substances *soluble* or easy of digestion, and which are reduced to a pulp in an hour and half.

'Animal substances:—1. Veal, lamb, all gelatinous substances, and in general the flesh of young animals, are sooner dissolved than that of old: 2. Fresh eggs: 3. Cow's milk: 4. Perch boiled with a little salt and parsley: when fried or seasoned with oil, wine, and white sauce, it is not so soluble. Vegetable substances:—1. Herbs, as spinach mixed with sorrel, are less soluble. Celery, tops of asparagus, and hops: 2. Bottom of artichokes: 3. Boiled pulp of fruits, seasoned with sugar: 4. Pulp or meal of farinaceous seeds: 5. Different sorts of wheaten bread, without butter, the second day after baking, the crust more so than the crumb. Salted bread more so than that without salt; brown bread in proportion as it contains more bran is less soluble: 6. Rapes, turnips, potatoes, parsnips, not too old.

'Substances which *facilitated* the menstrual power of the gastric juice, are sea salt, spices, mustard, scurvy-grass, horse-radish, radish, capers, wine, spirits in small quantities, cheese, particularly when old, sugar, various bitters.

'Substances which *retarded* the gastric power, are water, particularly hot, all acids, astringents, Peruvian bark taken after dinner: unctuous substances, kermes, corrosive sublimate, &c. Gosse likewise observed, that employment after a meal suspended or retarded digestion, as well as leaning with the breast against a table, and that repose of mind, vertical position and gentle exercise facilitated it.' Vol. I. p. 210.

It appears that Carminati, by digesting two drachms of fresh veal in an ounce of spring water, adding five grains of common salt, exposing it to the heat of about 100° of Fahrenheit for sixteen hours, and decanting the liquor, imitated the gastric juice of carnivorous animals. By repeated digestion with fresh flesh, he found it became much stronger, and more similar to the natural gastric juice. Struve, with phosphoric acid and

volatile alkali, made a liquor which produced an effect similar to the gastric juice on aliments.

The bile, considered as a necessary stimulus to the intestines, keeping up their energy and peristaltic motion, and thereby facilitating digestion, according to Dr. Saunders, contains: 1. Water impregnated with the odorous principle: 2. A mucilaginous substance, resembling the albumen: 3. A resinous substance containing the colouring principle and bitter taste: and 4. The mild mineral alkali. The combination of the bitter resin with the alkali, he supposes, forms the saponaceous matter. Fourcroy calls it a biliary or real animal soap. Our author here offers his *own* opinion, and considers it, with Galen and Paracelsus, merely an excrement.

'If I may be permitted to hazard a conjecture upon the use of the bile, and the viscus that secretes it, it would appear, as Fourcroy has well observed, that the liver has a great connection with the lungs, not only from the facts already mentioned, but from the large size of this viscus in the fœtus which has not yet respired; and that whatever action the bile may have upon the food, or on the intestines in digestion, there is reason to believe that the liver deprives the blood which passes through it of some of its noxious parts, performing an excrementitious operation in the abdomen, whilst the lungs are acting to the same end in the thorax. This appears probable, not only from the large size of the liver in those animals of limited respiration, but even the extent of this viscus in man and quadrupeds, which is by far the most voluminous gland in the body, indicates, that its action must be of greater extent than that of furnishing a mere secretion. All the glands form their secretions from the blood in its most perfect state, or as it circulates through the arteries; whilst, on the contrary, the liver makes use of the impure venous blood, supplied by the vena porta; which blood has been said by some, although denied by others, to be in a state of greater fluidity, and to have a putrescent tendency, so as scarcely or not at all to be coagulated; or in other words, possessing a superabundance of soda, which preserves its fluidity, and of carbon and hydrogen, which give it a dark colour. If this be the case, it is probable, that as this blood circulates through the liver, this viscus deprives it of hydrogen and carbon, which, united to a little oxygen, form an oily matter, and meeting with the soda, a saponaceous substance is produced, which forms the principal character of the bile. Hence arises the necessity of this fluid being made with constancy and regularity, for the integrity of all the functions; and the reason of its existing in all animals, and of its being as necessary as the evacuation of the lungs during respiration. In those animals whose respiratory organs are very small in comparison to their body, and where the carbon and hydrogen must be in large quantity in their blood from the want of proper evacuation, the liver is remarkably capacious and great in proportion, by which means these substances are evacuated in the form of bile, the act of respiration being incon-

venient to their mode of life. It is by such means that these two viscera assist each other. To this opinion of its being an excrementitious matter, may be added several other properties of a like nature, viz. its nauseous and disgusting smell and taste.

'It appears from the experiments of Fourcroy, that the oily part of the bile is nearly in the state of spermaceti, preserving its fluidity during a state of health. When, however, this matter is too abundant to remain in solution in the bile, it becomes crystallized, forming the calculi of the gall bladder, or gall stones, which, on analysis, evidently appear to owe their formation to this oily concrescible matter; and this matter being contained either in the pores or parenchymatous substance of the liver, often proves the source of several of its diseases.' P. 234-5.

Dr. Johnson concludes, that whatever may be the functions of the liver, and use of the bile, many experiments are necessary before any satisfactory proof can be had: and that 'the liver fulfils an operation, the whole of which science has not embraced.'

Saliva, tears, nasal mucus, pus (scrofulous, venereal, cancerous and hospital-sore), synovia,* sperma virile, humor à vesicatorio, humor hydrops, and the liquor amnii, complete the catalogue of fluids, in which we find no mention of the humors of the eye, so inestimably important to the animal economy. This omission is the more extraordinary, as ample information on the analysis of these humors is to be found in Plenck's Hygrology, which our author has oftener quoted than read. Nor has Dr. Johnson, though a mere historian, rarely or never venturing his own opinion of facts, paid any more attention to the wax of the ear, or that unctuous, ceraceous matter found in the *meatus auditorius externus*.

The examination of the solids cannot but be highly interesting to the experimentalist, as it presents him with a vast field unexplored by any of his predecessors. It is in this point of view that the history and actual state of any science may be useful. The desultory and incoherent speculations that are here offered on the 'muscle or flesh of a few animals; liver of the skate, brain, skin, and process of tanning membranous, tendinous, and ligamentous parts, with the art of making glue and isinglass;'—evince the imperfection of our analytical (as well as synthetical) knowledge of the constituent parts of animal bodies. Notwithstanding the author's partiality to the labours of Fourcroy and the French chemists, he is indebted to the excellent experiments of Mr. Hatchett on the muscular fibre, for all that is worthy attention on the solids.

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* Synovia, or the liquor of the joints, by the analysis of Marqueron gave $\frac{1}{144}$ parts of phosphat of lime; by that of Hatchett only $\frac{1}{450}$.

We have a detailed account of Seguin's method of tanning, which, though generally abandoned in France, might yet with attention facilitate the improvement of that art. The germ, however, of Seguin's discovery is to be found in the experiments of Macbride. This account is rendered interesting by Mr. Biggin's table of the relative quantities of the tanning principle* in the different barks, most of which are superior to that of the oak.

'Hard and external parts'—bones, horns, shells, zoophytes: hair, wool, feathers, silk, &c. are yet far from being accurately analyzed, and still farther from being elucidated by the confused medley of experiments and opinions here introduced. According to Mr. Hatchett, bones neither contain alumen nor magnesia, but are composed of two earthy neutral salts, a large quantity of phosphat of lime, a small proportion of sulphat of lime, some carbonat of lime, and gelatin. Merat-Guillot found 100 parts of hard bones from the church-yard contain 16 gelatin: 67 phosphat of lime: 1.5 carbonat of lime: loss 15.5: and common dry bones, 23 gelatin: 63 phosphat of lime: 2 carbonat of lime: 2 loss. The original and accurate experiments of Mr. Hatchett on these subjects stand unrivalled. The feathers of geese are said to be preferable to those of other fowls for beds, being less disposed to felt.

The second volume opens with an examination of the animal oils, soaps,† and acids, which is in a great measure but a repetition (sometimes a contradiction) of the experiments detailed in the first. In the actual state of our chemical knowledge of acids, we should have expected to see some attempt at classification, either by their quantities, affinities, the strength of their acidifying principles, or by some generic character that would have relieved the memory, and avoided the disgusting tautology of the present chaos. We shall extract our author's observations on the nature of *corpulency*, as a fair specimen of his manner of compiling, and also a proof of the alarming progress of modern empiricism.

'According to the theses of Dr. Beddoes, whenever there is a certain diminution of oxygen in the animal system, fat will be produced. The following observations, according to Coindet, seem to support this assertion. The chemical analysis of fat shows, that six parts of it contain nearly five of carbon, and one of hydrogen, and some sebacic acid. The fat parts of animals only differ from

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* Taken from that scientific work, Nicholson's Journal.

† A Spanish chemist has discovered a process of making soap, by adding farinaceous matter to the alkaline lye and oil, which forms a soap that in the course of a year will double its original weight by absorption from the atmosphere. Rev.

the fleshy, in the last containing azot and more oxygen. By this means the change of muscles into a substance like spermaceti has been explained by Fourcroy; and it has been observed, that fat in the living body increases at the expense of the muscles, and vice versa.

'The want of oxygen, considered as a cause of corpulency, is indicated by the analogy which exists between obesity and the sea scurvy, which seems only to be owing to a gradual abstraction of a part of the oxygen in the system. The sea-scurvy is never announced by meagreness, for a fulness of the habit is the first symptom of the disease. Dr. Trotter observes, that when a negro becomes rapidly corpulent, he never fails to be attacked by the scurvy, from which, according to the comparison of Dr. Beddoes, it appears that corpulency is to the scurvy what cachexy is to dropsy. According to Saussure and Humboldt, the atmosphere of high mountains contains less oxygen than that of lower regions, which explains why Condamine was attacked by scorbutic symptoms on the summit of Pinchina. All the symptoms of scurvy prove likewise that it arises from a privation of oxygen: thus the surface of the body is covered with livid spots, the arterial blood is very little fluid, and, after death, the left auricle is filled with venous blood, which Dr. Goodwin found in animals that had been deprived of life for want of oxygen.

'Country people know from experience, that to fatten poultry, they must be kept in darkness; that substances proper for prolonging their sleep must be mixed with their food, as tares or spirituous liquors. It is a curious circumstance, that the age when the secretion of fat is most considerable is about the fortieth year, a time when the arterial system ceases to act such a conspicuous part in the animal economy: either, as Dr. Coindet thinks, it is then ossified, or in part obliterated, while the venous system coming more and more into action, acquires that influence so considerable in old age. Perhaps the arteries, the action of which is then visibly diminished, furnish the system with less oxygen at that period, which may be looked upon as the cause of the corpulency of middle-aged people.'

The plumpness of children, 'whose venous system is not yet developed,' is thus accounted for:

'As respiration is more or less perfect, the blood may lose a greater or less quantity of carbon or hydrogen. In proportion as it loses less, the secretion of the fat will be more abundant, which affords an explanation of the enormous quantity of fat in amphibious animals, and fish, whose respiration is imperfect. They retain, therefore, more hydrogen and carbon, which passing into the arteries, Dr. Coindet thinks, occasion that considerable secretion of fat, found in fishes, in which the circulation is such, that almost the whole blood goes to the liver, either to operate there a secretion of fat, or of bile, the constituent parts of which do not differ much from those of the former. Diseases of the liver, such as scirrhous tumors, &c. are incident to people who are more or less corpulent.

The blood of plethoric, or fat people, is also commonly of a darker colour, and more viscous than that of lean people, which last is generally very fluid. Those who drink cyder are more meagre than those accustomed to beer, porter, or other liquors of the same kind. In Holland, and in some parts of England, the inhabitants are very corpulent, whilst in France they are thin, from the above causes.'

Vol. II. p. 40-3.

We shall not be accused of the spirit of captiousness in thus regaling our readers with such a copious extract, which we have perhaps rendered somewhat more intelligible by abridging; but we confess, we have more than once been half inclined to suspect that our *B. M.* of Derby, at the name of which, the mineralogist will arch his brows, is better acquainted with some fashionable encyclopedists of the metropolis, than with the rural retreats of science, as his work may be considered a model of the modern *conversazione* style. Dr. A. informs: Dr. B. relates: Dr. C. thinks: Dr. D. imagines: Dr. E. supposes, &c.: surely of all quackery, the quackery of philosophy is the most contemptible!!

Dr. Johnson, perhaps with as little authority as justice, denies Mr. Gibbs the merit of his method of separating animal oil from the different parts of animals, to bestow it gratuitously on Berthollet. Doubtless the chemist will be somewhat disappointed by a *history* of the lithic (uric) acid, in which the names of Wollaston, Pearson, or any other English philosopher do not appear! He has admitted, indeed, that Boyle discovered the phosphoric, and that Fisher described the formic acid in the Phil. Trans. 1670. This account is concluded with a confused process by Bonvoisin for separating, by means of sulphuric, the phosphoric acid from bones.

The account of poisons only furnishes the supposititious opinion that the venom of serpents is an animal gum.

'On the colouring matter.—Effects of Light.' It appears a generally received truth, that light is the agent, or efficient power, that deepens or renders more intense the colours in living bodies: that the beasts and birds are brighter or deeper coloured in the equatorial than in the temperate climates: and that the human skin is black or tawny in the tropical and polar regions. Thus we can account for the coppery brown colour of the Laplanders and Samoides, as well as that of the Africans, not, as Buffon supposed, from the dryness of the air occasioned by the extremes of heat in the one and cold in the other; but from the action of light, of which it is evident the frigid zones enjoy a greater portion (principally reflected) than the temperate ones, otherwise perhaps animal life could not be supported in these regions. But if light gives intensity to the colour of living bodies, it still more certainly deprives them of those co-

lours after death. In regard to its bleaching powers, the opinion that the rays of light effected a species of combustion, has been sufficiently exploded by the well-known affinity of light with oxygen; an affinity so powerful that it will revivify the oxydes of gold, silver, &c. change the oxymuriatic into common muriatic acid, and even deprive nitrous acid of more or less of its oxygen. Dr. Bancroft has shewn that it is yet to be ascertained, whether the colours which accompany or require the application of light, result directly from a combination of it with the coloured substances, or indirectly from its particular action in occasioning a separation of airs or their bases (and particularly of oxygen), or by favouring a combination thereof with the coloured matter. Thus, a solution of silver in the nitric acid becomes black in consequence of the loss of a certain portion of oxygen: the same is effected by the application of all inflammable bodies. Indigo receives its colour from the absorption of light and oxygen. We have repeatedly attempted to whiten linen with the oxymuriatic acid in a darkened room, but without success. It is therefore unreasonable to suppose that there is a combustion, (a term every person understands, but to which none have affixed a sufficiently explicit idea), or that light contributes to these effects on the colours of animal or other bodies, otherwise than by its affinity with oxygen, which affinity under some circumstances, and with the aid of perhaps other unknown affinities, sometimes separates and renders the oxygen elastic by uniting with it, and at other times occasions the combination of an increased portion of it, with the coloured substance. This is partly confirmed by the experiments of Davy and Beddoes, who whitened the fingers of a negro by means of muriatic phosoxyd (from φως light, and ὀξυς acid) that appears capable of giving out a small portion of oxygen, and of still retaining all the light entering into its composition.

The following observations on phosphorescent light, and that of the glow-worm, are so immediately connected with this popular subject, that we cannot omit them.

'Foster has observed, that the phosphoric part of the glow-worm (Lampyris splendidula, L.) is liquid, and if this animal be pressed between the fingers, the phosphorescence remains on them. According to Carradori, the phosphoric part of the Italian glow-worm (Lampyris Italica, L.) does not extend further than the last rings of the belly; it is there enclosed in an envelope or bag, composed of a membrane, one portion of which forms the superior, the other the inferior part of the belly, and which are united together. Behind this receptacle the phosphorus is found, resembling a paste, having the odour of garlic, and only a little savour: the phosphoric matter is squeezed out on the least pressure, but when separated from the body, it loses its splendour in a very short time, and is converted into a white dry matter.

'Carradori found, that the phosphorescent light of glow-worms (luccioloni [lucciolati] and lucciole) is suddenly extinguished if plunged into alcohol or vinegar, but continues to shine under oil, as well as in water or air: glow-worms, as well as the phosphorescent part detached from them, continue to shine under oil for hours together. If therefore these two kinds of glow-worms, which are of different species, and likewise phosphoric wood, continue to shine under oil, the light cannot proceed from a slow combustion, as Spallanzani pretends, since there is no air in oil to entertain it; and if the glow-worm shines under water, because, as Spallanzani maintains, the oxygen gas, which is one of the principles of the water, swells the combustion, why does not the phosphorus of Kunckel shine under water? Glow-worms continue to shine perfectly in vacuo. Carradori affirms, that the light of these insects is peculiar and innate; and as several other animals have the power of accumulating the electric fluid, and of keeping it condensed in peculiar organs, to emit and expand it afterward at will, so may the glow-worms have the faculty of retaining, in a state of condensation, the fluid which constitutes light; that they may have the power even of extracting the light which enters into the composition of their aliments, and of transmitting it into the reservoir in their abdomen; or it is possible they may have the power of extracting the luminous fluid from the air, as other animals do heat from it by a chemical process; and the doctrine of Goettling on combined light, simplified by Brugnatelli, renders this opinion very probable.

'That glow-worms emit a stronger and more lively light in oxygen gas, than in common air, does not depend on combustion, and its being rapidly excited by the respiration of this gas, but arises from a more agreeable and lively existence they feel: the same happens in other circumstances. Thus, when they fly freely without any interruption, their light is regular and beautiful; but once in our power, they either emit light irregularly or not at all. On being disturbed, they emit a frequent light, and this appears to be a mark of resentment; when placed upon their backs, they shine almost without interruption [intermission], by making continual efforts to extricate themselves. During the day, they must be tormented to shine, a proof of its being the time of their repose.* They can shine at will in every point of their belly, a proof of their being able to move any part of it independent of the other, and they render this phosphorescence (or lucidity) more or less lively, and emit it as long as they please. On being plunged into warm and cold water, alternately, they shine with vivacity in the first, and extinguish their light in the last, another proof of an alternately agreeable and disagreeable sensation, giving rise to or diminishing it; in hot water, the light disappears by degrees. Hence their light does not depend on external causes, but on their will. From his experiments it appears that the phosphoric matter undergoes no soluble action except from water. The faculty of shining is not destroyed

* Perhaps owing to its being the time rather of absorption than emission of light, and that this action forms a part of their animal œconomy. Rev.

by incision or tearing open the belly: a small portion cut out will pass suddenly from the most beautiful brilliancy to a total extinction, and reassume in a moment its pristine brightness. This is attributed to a remnant of irritability, or more probably to the stimulus of the air, a mechanical irritation producing the same. A slight compression takes away their faculty of ceasing to shine. Exsiccation suspends the light, whilst softening in water makes it reappear again.'

Carradori thus proves, that the cause of phosphorescence is not from a slow combustion, as these insects shine in gases improper for combustion; nor from the siccation of the azotic gas; but that it arises from a dissipation of aggregate light (light absorbed from the sun's rays). The Italian chemists, as well as Priestley and Wilson, have proved that light may combine and accumulate in bodies, in a greater or less quantity, according to their capacity for it: and it is unquestionably owing to this combination of light, and not to the omnificient powers of oxygen, as commonly supposed, that whiteness is communicated to vegetable stuffs by the modern process of bleaching. Doubtless the power and agency of light will be found infinitely more general and more applicable to the improvement of the arts, to horticulture, and even to medicine (in medicated waters, &c.) and agriculture, than philosophers have hitherto imagined.

The experiments of Dr. Hulme show that the lumination of herrings, mackarel, &c. is greatest in those which are fattest; that light begins to be emitted before any signs of putrefication appear, commonly on the second, and ending about the sixth day; and that the luminous property is destroyed as putrescence advances. 'That this light is a constituent principle of their bodies; that it may be separated from them by a peculiar process, (immersion in dilute aqueous solutions of Epsom and sea-salts, 2 drachms of the former to 2 ounces of water,) and retained and rendered permanent for some time, for it seems to be incorporated with their whole substance, and to form a part of them in the same manner as their other constituent principles. The soft roe abounds more with light than the flesh, while the hard roe is less luminous than the soft: the most luminous state of the latter was about the third or fourth night, when it appeared like a complete body of light. This spontaneous light is not accompanied with any sensible heat.* As light is wholly incorporated with every part of their substance, it seems probable that it is the first constituent principle that escapes after the death of marine fishes. Heat,

* B. Wilson on Light and Colours, &c. Rev.

cold, acids, alkalis, &c. extinguish this spontaneous light, but can be revived by the saline solution. Some of the luminous matter scraped from the herring, and mixed in this solution, being well shaken in the phial, the whole liquid became richly impregnated with light, and continued shining for above twenty-four hours.' Davy ascribes this luminous appearance to the liberation of nitric phosacid. From these experiments we may perhaps be enabled to account for the luminous appearance seen near the surface of the sea when agitated. We have had occasion to examine slightly at sea, the water which contained great quantities of this luminous matter, and have taken up the shining particles on the finger, when the atmosphere uniformly extinguished them in less than a minute. In a bucket or bottle of water, these luminous and perfectly distinct particles continued to emit more or less light, by rapid agitation, for nearly two hours: on the addition of urine a momentary revivification took place. These lights are more common in the waters of the southern than the northern seas, and when examined by the microscope discover a membranous texture of irregularly broken filaments, which float near the surface of the sea, and render the water turbid and slightly opake. It is not therefore improbable, that these lucid particles are disengaged from the bodies of dead fishes, and in consequence of their lightness carried to the top of the waves, where they continue emitting a deep yellow or orange light, similar in magnitude to that of the fulgora, until they are extinguished by meeting the atmosphere or sun's rays; and not that they are perfect phosphorescent insects, as some have supposed.

Concretions or calculi.—How pleasing are the emotions of the traveller on finding the direct way after being bewildered in a labyrinth! Dr. Johnson, as he approaches more immediately within the sphere of his profession, seems to recollect something of classical order. Animal concretions are defined; and the use of their analysis, 1. 'To afford the physiologist a more accurate knowledge of the animal mechanism, by showing him the principles upon which they [concretions] are formed, and the circumstances that give rise to them. 2. To assist in that investigation which is necessary to arrive at the cure of the diseases they [concretions] produce, and often attended with the greatest danger.' The calculi are described, their history narrated according to the era of their discovery, and their chemical analysis exhibited in the chronological succession of the experimentalists who examined their contents. The author, in attaining a somewhat more scientific arrangement, still retains his diffuse manner, which almost approaches to garrulity. Notwithstanding, the medical practitioner, who is not deeply read in chemistry, will find much information, conveyed in a

popular form: he will also perceive that the individual labours of Drs. Wollaston and Pearson, in this department, surpass those of the French junto, of which Fourcroy was the gasconading reporter, and for which he has been parasitically called *l'orateur de science*. Our knowledge of these substances is yet too limited to give a correct summary of their constituent parts.

The section on excrements comprehends the urine, sweat, and fæces. Mr. Cruickshank gives the contents of urine in a healthy state to be muriatic salts, phosphoric, lithic acid and phosphat of lime, and animal extractive matter. So great is the analogy between the cutaneous perspiration and urine, that they have been considered of the same nature.

On the component (perhaps essential) *parts of animal substances.* These are albumen, gelatin, fibrin, and osseous matter.

The analysis of albumen gives carbon, hydrogen, azot, and different proportions of oxygen, phosphoric, and muriatic acids, soda and lime: it is the predominant and essential part in membrane, cartilage, &c. Gelatin contains carbon, hydrogen, azot, saccharine matter, phosphoric and muriatic acid, lime, and soda. In various states and proportions (including moisture and organic arrangement) it is the principal cause of those degrees of flexibility, of elasticity, and of putrescibility, so various in the different parts of animals. Fibrin is very tenacious, capable of being lengthened, exists only in the blood and muscles, and is more perfectly animalized than either albumen or gelatin; consists of nitrogen, hydrogen, carbon, oxygen, and light. Osseous matter is nearly a phosphat of lime.

An *appendix* includes oviparous quadrupeds and serpents, ants, cantharides, wood-lice, and lumbrici or earth-worms,—all trifling.

The third volume is occupied with subjects no less important than life and death. 'Life—vital principle, irritability, respiration, animal heat, and animalization.' Glancing at the *anima mundi* of Pythagoras, the φυσις of Hippocrates, and the πνευμα of Aristotle, among the ancients; and the *anima vegetans*, sidereal spirit, *vis insita*, phlogiston and oxygen of the moderns, as the principle of life, the author proceeds to give diffuse extracts, doubtless from his common-place book, apparently in the order of his desultory reading, or as circumstances might make him acquainted with the opinions of the different authors. In this maze of speculative opinions, we were surprised not to see the animal hydraulic machine make a conspicuous figure; but Dr. Johnson is always so generous as to leave something for his successors. By such a confusion of dates, the young student might be induced to suppose that Cullen and Brown took their ideas of life from Dr. Rush (of Philadelphia), whereas the latter only caricatured the principles of Brown. Our author,

however, in the midst of these Babylonish effusions, never fails to seize every opportunity of forcibly wresting the laurel from the brow of his countrymen, to place it on that of his favourite. He has invoked again the manes of Michael Servetus* and Andrew Cesalpinus,† and generously bestowed on them the merit of having discovered the circulation of the blood prior to Harvey.‡ It is the duty of the historian to state facts: this has been beneath our author's attention; we shall however mention some particulars to prevent deception in future. Harvey modestly demonstrated (De Motu Cordis & Sanguinis) that the blood circulated throughout the whole animal frame: the novelty, utility, and truth of this assertion induced the French, as usual, first to ask if the author was a Frenchman; afterwards suppose, and in fine assert, that it was the discovery of one of their countrymen. On this a controversy took place, and the spurious pretensions of the French, notwithstanding their attempts at forging dates, were completely developed. Some time after a subtle Italian, surprised at the honest-hearted credulity of the English in deigning to notice the French fabrications, gravely assumed the character of umpire, and with great appearance of candour and impartiality took a review of the question between the parties, and concluded by boldly asserting, with the aid of some garbled extracts, that the circulation of the blood was explained above 400 years before, by one of his countrymen. The French, no longer blinded by their national vanity, were struck at the subtlety of this new imposture, and have ever since recognised the merit of the real discoverer Harvey. The work of the Spaniard, (Servetus) however, is curious, and possesses considerable merit; but it is too much in the style of Paracelsus; and being but a small volume, more speculative than practical, it remained about 200 years wholly unknown even to his countrymen, until Don Nicolas Antonio, in his Bibliotheca, explored its contents, and gave it celebrity, but never such as to supersede that of Harvey. The discovery of vital air or oxygen gas is also ascribed to Scheele, Dr. Priestley, and Lavoisier, although it is now known that the latter was verbally informed of it by Priestley.§

These historical errors are trifling, however, when compared with the assertion that introduces this volume: 'That life is a material principle, and consequently subject to the laws of chemical affinities!!!' Thus, one makes living bodies a grand laboratory for oxygen; a second balances life by chemical affini-

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* Born at Villanova, in Aragon, 1509. † Born at Arezzo, 1519. REV.

‡ Born 1578, after the reformation had proscribed all communication with Spain.

§ See his 'Observations on the Decomposition of Water,' 1800.

ties; a third makes animal existence consist in the attraction or repulsion of the galvanic fluid, and in a perpetual series of corpuscular changes effected by light and oxygen; a fourth maintains that there is more life in polypi than man, as they can bear section; and others that the vital principle, or animal life, is the effect of stimuli!!! Nay, more; we most earnestly recommend the following to the serious attention of all philosophers, chemists, authors, bookmakers, and compilers.

'Thus digestion only operates by the galvanic fluid, which renders the gastric powers active. *Thought* also equally *requires* the galvanic fluid, which is conveyed to the place where it is to be put into execution: hence, in the time of digestion, it is to be supposed that *thought* either cannot take place, or that it should turn the galvanic fluid elsewhere, and the digestion be disturbed. And as *thought* likewise *requires* a great deal of galvanic fluid in the *thinking organ*, it is necessary that all the other motions, except the vital, be suspended, or *thought cannot be made freely!!!*' Vol. III. p. 25.

What a pity that our author's *thinking organ* * was not *galvanized* before he began to compile these volumes! Truly, there is something of originality in the expression *to make thought!*

The subject of animal heat will always be interesting; but we recoil with mingled sensations of regret and disgust on seeing the happily conceived experiments of Black, Priestley, Crawford, and Davy, mangled and interlarded with the common-place censures on Providence of the French philosophers. The author, not content with reducing man to a mere galvanic apparatus, and machine for *making thought*, now arraigns the justice of infinite wisdom. What shall we say to a writer who fills the pages (115-6 of Vol. III.) of a work on chemistry with whining, affectedly humane, but really atheistical reflections on the political and physical condition of society, by Seguin and Lavoisier?

Drs. Black and Priestley first ascribed the cause of animal heat to the action of pure air on the lungs, and Dr. Crawford demonstrated it by experiments. The subsequent experiments of Lavoisier and his associates have not added one other important fact to our knowledge; they have indeed laboured with but indifferent success to revive the opinion, that it is occasioned by the slow combustion of oxygen gas in the lungs. The term slow combustion we consider a solecism. The laws of affinity do not depend entirely on the quantity of matter, but on its quality;

* We should advise our author and other materialists, to read Dr. Ferriar's excellent observations on the vital principle, in the Manchester Memoirs.

the duration of combination however must always depend on the volume of matter to be combined. It is thus that slow combustion is improperly used for the time or duration of the process. The rays of light emitted by the smallest taper, or the sound produced by the discharge of a pistol, move with as greatvelocity as those from a torch, or a cannon of the largest size; but the minute quantity of the one, and the little power of the other soon render them not cognizable by the senses. Davy has shewn that the lungs absorb oxygen, or what he calls phos-oxygen, that no combustion could take place, and that animal heat is produced by the blood's attracting and absorbing oxygen gas, and by its motion in the body. The highest degree of animal heat, in a state of health, recorded here is 103° of Fahrenheit. In all these theories no attention has been paid to the atmospheric pressure, or the influence of the electric or galvanic fluid. Humboldt, indeed, has ascribed the cause of animalization, or assimilation of the aliments, to the latter: thus, carbon and hydrogen are combined by the galvanic fluid, and form oils; hydrogen, carbon, and oxygen, by the same means, form acids; hydrogen and azot form soda, &c. Iron and lime, he considers, are furnished by the aliments; whilst de la Metherie and Vauquelin affirm that lime, sulphur, phosphorus, &c. are the products of the vital power.

Our next and final book, chapter, section, or whatever other denomination the reader's fancy may suggest, (for our author has not deigned to follow the vulgar mode of giving names to the divisions of his work) is on *death* and *putrefaction*; important words, which he has modestly deemed sufficient for an hundred pages.

We have thus laboured through these three volumes, (one of which is composed of verbatim repetitions of the other two) not from their merit, but to show that we still desiderate a distinct treatise on animal chemistry; not compiled, indeed, in the manner of this, to serve the purpose of quackery, but addressed to men of real science. We should, however, apologize to our readers for the length of this generally uninteresting article, were it not from the consideration, that if men of some education and talents will attempt to destroy our religion and moral principles through the means of chemical philosophy, we deem it our duty to show that their knowledge of chemistry is as superficial as their knowledge of religion; and that their philosophy is as contemptible in the eyes of scientific men, as their opinions are inimical to true virtue and the happiness of society. The author is not destitute of talents, but they are still misguided by the abandoned principles of the French school, and he evinces no hope of reformation; when he would attack established principles he assumes an air of in-

difference and profound philosophy, and produces his sophisms as old and well received truths. His knowledge of chemistry seems wholly drawn from Fourcroy; but we would recommend him, and all the other admirers of the *Systeme des Connoissances chimiques*, to read and study attentively the observations of professor Proust, the author's friend and formerly fellow-labourer, on that work, published in the *Memorial Literario* of Madrid, 1802.

We cannot omit entering our protest against the disingenuous practice of some modern book-makers, that of introducing a catalogue of books at the end of each chapter, quoted as authorities, which, in fact, they have never read, and perhaps never seen, but the titles of which they have transcribed from some bookseller's catalogue. We hope in future to see the ancient custom of placing the volume and folio of every work cited, at the bottom of the page. This work is very incorrectly printed.

ART. III.—*Marsh's Translation of Juvenal.* (*Concluded from page* 178.)

THE critic, who in these days has to remark upon the justness of the thoughts and animation of the style of Juvenal, is but the gleaner of a field whose harvest is already reaped. The preface of Dryden to his translation, written in all the magnificence of the language of Plato, and abounding in observations which convince us of the deep research, as well as overwhelm us with the flowing eloquence of their author, has left nothing for his followers but admiration, hopeless of successful rivalry. Had his verse, as it is in other instances even superior, been in this only equal to his prose, vain,—as Johnson says of the Elegy of Gray,—would it have been to censure, and to praise him useless. But if Dryden has failed in translating Juvenal, who shall expect to succeed? It is not that another translator may not have better understood (by taking more pains to do it) the sense of his original: who but Dryden has caught his spirit, has spoken in English as Juvenal would have done himself, whenever, unobscured by want of study, and not hurried by idleness, the translator appears in all his natural grandeur of versification, and expresses in their full force the cutting sarcasms of the Roman satirist?

Frequent and forbidding are the difficulties which impede the progress of the translator of Juvenal. The chastised beauties of the didactic style of Horace lose nothing in the happy imitations of Pope; but even the energetic pen of Johnson has often failed to exhibit a correct resemblance of the irregular

and indignant features of his model. Now pursuing closely a train of philosophic reasoning, now interrupted by angry bursts of satire, rarely, but on occasion most enchantingly, melting into tenderness, ever various in his manner, who, in a language whose genius is so different as that of ours from the Latin, shall, as a translator of Juvenal, though concise be perspicuous, and still more, poetical? Who shall preserve and explain local, temporary, and personal allusion, without injuring the dignified and sententious brevity of his original?

In the vulgarity, we are sorry to observe so generally resorted to as a medium by which even the modern translators of Juvenal hope to express his more familiar passages, they forget that this familiarity is usually heightened by a sort of mock-heroic style; and that the necessary lowness of his thoughts when considering unworthy objects, never induces Juvenal to debase his satires with the usage of corrupt Latin. Why, therefore, should his translators put into the mouths of inferior characters those phrases to which Juvenal has not thought it proper to adopt any corresponding ones, but trusted solely to the force and exactness of his description, without adding the language of a plebeian, to particularize his character?

We shall conclude our strictures upon this subject by a short account of what we conceive to be the excellences and defects of the several translators; and then return to Mr. Marsh, from the contemplation of whose late example, we hope all future attempts of the like nature will be given up in despair; till another Dryden shall arise, who to equal genius adds a judgment, which, by acuteness of remark, and severity of correction, may, after intense labour, become at last superior even to the almost invincible difficulties, presented by our language to the translator of Juvenal.

We shall transcribe Johnson's opinion of Dryden's performance, and not venture to add any thing to it. After saying,—'Of Juvenal there had been a translation by Stapylton, and another by Holiday; neither of them very poetical. Stapylton's is more smooth; and Holiday's more esteemed for the learning of his notes:' he proceeds to mention that by Dryden and his coadjutors. 'The general character of this translation will be given when it is said to preserve the wit, but to want the dignity, of the original. The peculiarity of Juvenal is a mixture of gaiety and stateliness, of pointed sentences, and declamatory grandeur. His points have not been neglected; but his grandeur none of the band seemed to consider as necessary to be imitated, except Creech, who undertook the thirteenth satire. It is therefore perhaps possible to give a better representation of that great satirist, even in those parts

which Dryden himself has translated, some passages excepted, which never will be excelled.' Johnson's Life of Dryden.

The concluding paragraph of the above has probably stimulated many of the unsuccessful candidates to their attempt. We must take Johnson's praise of the thirteenth satire by Creech with some exceptions. For instance—'the grandeur of Juvenal' does not seem to have been imitated in the following passage: (Sat. 13. v. 107.)

'Dare him to swear, he with a chearful face
Flies to the shrine, and bids thee *mend thy pace*;
He urges, goes before thee, shews the way,
Nay, *pulls thee on*,' &c.

Sat. 13. v. 131.

'None feigns, *none acted mourning 's forc'd to show*,
Or *squeeze* his eyes to make the torrent flow.'

He also talks of 'terms,' 'assizes,' and 'juries:' which an *imitation* might allow of; but what should we think of a Jewish *translator* of Juvenal, who was to introduce the Sanhedrim as a Roman council?

The faults of Mr. Gifford's translation were amply pointed out in the Critical Review for September, October, and November, 1802. We could wish to extract some passages for approbation, but the length of this article has already trespassed too much upon the claims of subjects of later interest. We shall therefore refer our readers to satire the fourth, which we think Mr. Gifford, generally speaking, has rendered in a masterly manner; and to those parts of Juvenal which in their versification countenance a translator in the use of broken and discontinued measures. This indeed, where the flowing style of the original forbids it, is the most obvious error of Mr. Gifford's performance. By his Baviad and Mæviad he has shown us that he can descend 'in ovilia' with a dignity well sustained and worthy of a better direction; why should he not have risen according to his promise* 'in reluctantes Dracones,' by an imitation, instead of a translation, of all the satires of Juvenal, except the two preoccupied by the indisputable power of Johnson, every one of which might have been applied, *mutatis mutandis*, to the castigation of the follies and vices of the present day? It would have been a task which we believe he would have performed very creditably; in which he would have been unfettered by the necessity of fitting the wild extent of the English language to the Procrustean bed of the Latin; in which he would have had an opportunity of turning that original vein of satire which he certainly possesses,

* Motto to Baviad and Mæviad.

against those of his countrymen who deserve it; and by the successful execution of which he would have added as much to his literary fame, as to the amusement and advantage of the public.

Mr. Owen's translation of this much insulted author, may, by laborious and extravagant collectors of every book that treats upon every subject, however unimportant the matter or poor the manner, be laid on the same shelf with Madan's plain, but far more useful prose. Mr. Rhodes is below contempt. Harvey and Neville have sunk into the oblivion they merited; we shall therefore consider them as dead, and will not rake up their ashes. Against Mr. Marsh's pretensions we have already delivered, and have still further to support, our opinion. Let us, however, in justice, select two passages in the thirteenth satire, as a counterpoise to each other.

'To sacrifice a lamb, or to appease
Their lares by a crested cock, and ease
Thus hope to gain, alas! they never dare.
What feels the sick'ning sinner but despair?'

'Yes, these are they who fear the lightning's blast,
Who shiver ere the first faint peal be past;
Nor judge these bolts by casual tempests driv'n,
But dread th' avenging ministers of heav'n.' Sat. 13.

Mr. Marsh tells us in the fourteenth satire, that the avaricious merchant, having suffered shipwreck,

'—— is forc'd on scraps to dine,
And live supported by a paltry sign.'

Juvenal says, he tells the story, or exhibits the picture of his shipwreck, to excite compassion. The noun 'head' is oddly used by our author:

'But he who hazards thus each vent'rous *head*,
Gains by these means his fuel, raiment, bread.'

'Crescit amor nummi, quantum ipsa pecunia crescit,
Et minus hanc optat, qui non habet.' Sat. 14. v. 139.

is well translated:

'Increase of wealth increases our desires,
And he, who least possesses, least requires.'

Of the miser who starves himself Mr. Marsh observes,

'Nor will he quite consume his mouldy crust,
Since this, with yesterday's vile fragments, must
Serve for another day.' Sat. 14.

'Sensit Alexander,' &c. Sat. 14. v. 311.

'When Alexander found the sage could dwell
Cheerful, contented in so mean a cell,
Far happier, he exclaim'd, this humble fate,
Desiring nothing, than his cumb'rous state,
Who seeks o'er all the world supreme to reign,
And finds the perils equal to the gain.'

We wish such passages as the above had been more frequent in this work, and not rare exceptions, as they are, to the prosaic heaviness that surrounds them.

In the fifteenth satire we have the following pleasant specimen of a familiar style in poetry:

'At table when Ulysses us'd to dwell,
On this, with other tales that he would tell,' &c.

In the sixteenth we have a specimen of the facetious:

'If such a friend be found, so void of fear,
Our father's *whiskers* he may justly wear.'

The plain word Juvenal uses, is more delicate than the inuendo of his translator in the following:

'—— while Fuscus goes,
Upon an errand I need not disclose.' Sat. 16.

'Phaleræ' and 'torques,' Sat. 16. v. 60., according to Mr. Marsh, are 'wealth and fame.'

We now return to the tenth satire, which Mr. Marsh has evidently versified from the prose of Madan. This satire seems to be above translation: for Dryden, except in the opening lines, and some few detached passages, has entirely failed in supporting its uncommon spirit. Mr. Gifford indeed 'has caught some portion of the fire of Juvenal,' and is

'Proximus huic, longo sed proximus intervallo.'

Johnson's imitation is beyond all praise. As to Mr. Marsh, he is so absolutely out of the question, that we can no longer trifle with him: uninspired as he is by the genius of antiquity, and poor in the resources of his native tongue; so ill has he performed his task, that the vigorous beauties of the Roman satirist languish into unmeaning vacancy under the feeble hand of his inadequate translator.

Then let the manes of Juvenal repose in quiet; and if his English admirers must exhibit him to the public, let it be his Εἴδωλον, and not his 'Vera Umbra;' let him, in short, be imi-

t ated, but not undergo the disgrace of repeated parodies in pure prose, though divided, as has been humorously observed of Dr. Cririe's Scottish scenery, into cuttings of ten syllables, under the mock title of 'translations into English verse.'

ART. IV.—*A Help to the Unlearned in the Study of the Holy Scriptures; being an Attempt to Explain the Bible in a familiar Way. Adapted to common Apprehensions, and according to the Opinions of approved Commentators. By Mrs. Trimmer, Author of Sacred History selected from the Scriptures, with Annotations and Reflections, and other Works; and Editor of the Guardian of Education.* 8vo. *p.* 822. 12*s. Boards.* Rivingtons. 1805.

THERE is, it may be safely asserted, no writer, whatever his learning may be, or whatever his abilities, who has not some influence on the opinions and conduct of mankind;—an influence however which is generally proportioned to the extent of that learning, and the splendour of those abilities. To the supreme importance of literature every period, and every page of history, will bear ample and continual testimony. The revolutions of empires have not been effected by the sword alone. Literature can boast her heroes, who in the narrow space of their own closets have found that position which the philosopher Archimedes could not find, and with a lever very different from that which he contemplated, have wielded the world.

If it be necessary to adduce any particular instance of the truth of these remarks, we may refer to what not long since passed amongst our neighbours. The strange revolution there atchieved was confessedly literary. To the bewitching philosophy of Rousseau, to the impudent infidelity of Voltaire, may be attributed the wild opinions on government and religion, which generated the ferocious manners, and the sanguinary conduct, of a people to whom was once given the epithet of polite, as an appropriate appellation.

The writers whose labours most interest society, are those who have employed themselves on subjects of religion. Religion is of equal and unquestionable moment to all: no wonder then that the opinions which relate to it have been so various, and the effects of them so important. On religion, and on religious opinions, depends in no common degree the tranquillity, the prosperity, and the happiness of a state.

We have been led into these reflections by the article now before us. The holy scriptures are the guides of life; the cloud by day, and the pillar of fire by night. Those therefore

who undertake to illustrate or explain them, enter upon a task, in the execution of which we are each and all of us concerned. Their competence and their motives, are questions of universal consideration. Such has been the zeal of infidelity, so various have been the forms which it has of late assumed, that (extraordinary and even ridiculous as it may to some appear) it is not impossible for an explanation of the Bible to issue from the pen of one, whose greatest satisfaction it would be to obscure its truth, to corrupt its purity, and to destroy its influence. To the commentator on the holy scriptures we may say, 'be thy intents wicked,' thou mayest rob us of our best hopes, of our purest comforts: be they 'charitable,' thou mayest increase our knowledge, animate our virtue, and smooth the road to eternal life.

We well know in what class to place Mrs. Trimmer. She is an old and approved servant of the public, and her sacred history (from which she has taken whatever suited her purpose) gave us reason to hope that her new work would not be undeserving of the notice and favour of the world. These hopes have been realized. The reputation already acquired by this lady will not suffer by a comparison of her present with her former labours. To diffuse among the 'unlearned' a knowledge of the scriptures, is an honourable employment; and it is here executed in a manner which is entitled to no common praise. The style is easy, simple, and correct; and it has been the endeavour of the writer to excite attention and to allure the reader from the commentary to the text. Her remarks are always sensible, and always tend to impress upon the reader's mind how indispensably necessary it is that the belief should lead to the practice of religion. 'My object,' says the compiler, 'has been to produce a rational faith and a right practice founded upon the word of God.' As specimens of her success, we offer the following quotations:

'Observe in this chapter, that the faith which was approved in Abraham, was a faith built on the promises of God, which led him to obey the commands of God however difficult they might appear. Call to mind these promises, and what God commanded him to do, as related in the book of Genesis, and turn also to chap. xi. of St. Paul's Epistle to the Hebrews, where you will find that Abraham had, like Christians, an eternal inheritance in view. You will then understand what a justifying faith is, that is, a faith which God reckons for righteousness, namely, a faith which leads those who do it to obey the commandments of God; for none will be justified at the last day, for their faith, unless it is accompanied with good works; though without faith they certainly would not be justified, or reckoned righteous for their works only.'

Rom. Chap. IV. p. 695.

'Ver. 1. to 7.—The doctrine of justification by faith, as explained in the last chapter, is very comfortable, for without it there could be no peace to those who know that eternal death is the punishment of sin, which can only be taken away by the free grace of God.

'Ver. 7. to the end.—Take particular notice of the apostle's reasoning in these verses, which plainly shews, that every human creature to whom sin is imputed on account of Adam's offence, namely his whole race, has an interest also in the redemption purchased by Christ. In what manner the benefit has been and is applied to those who have not been or are not of the household of God, the church, is not fully explained in the scriptures; and, as christians, it does not immediately concern us to enquire: The judge of all the earth will do right, we cannot doubt; and how he will deal with those to whom his gospel is made known is plainly revealed in that gospel. Let not the unlearned christian then, perplex his mind with difficult questions, but rely upon the declaration of the apostle, ver. 15. to the end of the chapter, which shews that the injury done to mankind by the offence of Adam, is recompensed in the sight of God, by the righteousness of Christ, and his obedience to death for the redemption of the world, so that all will be saved who testify a true faith by good works.'

Rom. Chap. V. P. 695.

From the commentary on Chap. VIII., we select this passage, and earnestly intreat the reader to consider with all possible attention that part which our limits will not allow us to insert.

'To know whether we are or are not of the number of God's elect or chosen people, we must, instead of trusting to inward feelings (by which many have been deceived), examine ourselves to see whether we have a hearty and constant desire to obey God's holy commandments, a sincere sorrow and purpose of amendment when we are conscious of having offended him in thought, word, or deed, an earnest desire to possess the treasures of heaven, and such a love for our Redeemer that we should be ready to sacrifice any thing, even our very lives, rather than be separated from him. If such be our faith and our practice, we may surely hope to be reckoned among the elect people of God, who will be owned by Christ as his at the resurrection of the dead.' Rom. Ch. VIII. P. 699.

This observation concludes the commentary on Chap. II. of St. Luke's epistle.

In the former part of the explanation of this chapter it is said, 'the royal law (verse 8) means the commandments of God; one table of which relates to our duty to our neighbour.' The words of St. James are, 'If ye fulfil the royal law according to the scripture, "Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself," ye do well.' We conceive that by the 'royal law' in this place, is therefore meant nothing more than our duty to our neighbour. Those who are desirous to see an admirable

elucidation of this verse and of the three succeeding verses, are referred to the thirteenth discourse of Dr. Sherlock. (Vol. I. p. 218.)

We have had much reason to commend, but our commendation must be mixed with somewhat of censure. We think the author has not been sufficiently attentive to 'explanation.' Several verses, several metaphors, have passed unexpounded, which are certainly not intelligible to the persons for whom her book is professedly compiled. But upon the whole we regard it with great approbation; and while it is peculiarly adapted to the 'unlearned,' the well-informed need not blush to peruse it:

'Indocti discant et ament meminisse periti.'

We conclude with a confident hope that the present work will induce every sincere christian to consider the Bible (to use the language of the pious translators of it) as that 'inestimable treasure, which excelleth all the riches of the earth; because the fruit thereof extendeth itself, not only to the time spent in this transitory world, but directeth and disposeth men unto that eternal happiness which is above in heaven.'

In a future edition we should be glad to see a table of Jewish weights and measures.

ART. V.—*An Account of the Cape of Good Hope, &c. with a View of the political and commercial Advantages which might be derived from its Possession by Great Britain. By Captain Robert Percival.* 4to. 16*s.* Baldwin. 1804.

THE Cape of Good Hope is of importance in many points of view. The poet figures to his mind on the mention of its name the genius of the storms, so sublimely described by Camoens: the naturalist regards it as the favourite point, from which he may explore the animal and vegetable treasures of Africa: the sailor makes to it for refreshments in his voyages from Europe to the East Indies; and the statesman considers the manifold advantages it might afford to any European possessor. Our author is an officer, occupied fully with the duties of his station, and, having had little more than a transient view of the greater part of the country to which his travels extended, wisely confines himself to the objects within his reach, and gives us in an entertaining, though rather prolix narrative, an account of the chief occurrences when the English took possession of the Cape, and during a stay of six weeks on his first arrival at the place, and about the same time on his return to it from the East Indies in his way back to Europe.

In three months time the general manners of a people may be tolerably well ascertained, and the principal features of a small country examined The tract described lies within fifty miles of the Cape: the country is not populous; there are no large towns or splendid monuments of art to give life to the scene, and occupation to the writer; and though he was on a mountain at a height infinitely greater 'than the top of St. Paul's,' the objects within his ken were few; and it is not surprising that he should find time to remark, that it was with difficulty he 'could see the waggons moving in the streets, while the people passing to and fro could only be distinguished as little black spots.' It is well that the actual height of this wonderful mountain is given in feet, or we might be led to conclude that it out-topped the Cordilleras or the mountains of the moon: but arithmetic is a sad leveller, and the Cape must not boast of its Alps nor even enter into a competition with Cader Idris or Snowdon. The height of Table Hill, for this is the name of the mountain, is from 'the summit to the level of the sea about 4000 feet, and from the outskirts of the town near 3600.' The observer then must have been not a mile and a half from his diminished waggons and specks of men; and he must, we conclude, have looked with the spectacles of Shakespeare at the shipping in the bay, which appeared like small boats:

> 'The fishermen that walk upon the beach,
> Appear like mice; and yon tall anchoring bark,
> Diminish'd to her cock; her cock, a buoy
> Almost too small for sight.'

The Cape of Good Hope had been in the possession of the Dutch above an hundred and eighty years, when it was taken by the English in the year 1796. The colony in this time, notwithstanding many irregularities in the government, and a want of a regular system of organisation, had spread from the shore to nearly five hundred miles up the country, and covered, though thinly, a surface whose greatest breadth is about 250 miles. The divisions of the colony are bounded by 'long tracts of huge mountains:' the first range running in a direction due east and west about fifty miles, and inclosing with the sea an irregular tract of country, whose greatest breadth is about twenty miles. The second range to the north of this is the Zwarte Bergen, or Black Mountains, behind which is a third range, being the limits of Hottentot Holland, so called from its containing few inhabitants except the natives; and in travelling more to the north, Caffraria opens to the view, with its hills still more elevated, whose flat surfaces resemble terraces successively rising above each other. Within the first range is Cape Town, and this tract of country is the most fertile, best cultivated, and most civilised.

The coast from the earliest times has been noted for its tremendous storms, the violence of its waves, and the heights of its mountains. A more accurate survey and larger experience will probably diminish very much the exaggerations of the traveller, who not having seen land for some time, and prepossessed by former accounts, really imagines, that the southern promontory of Africa is particularly distinguished by its awe-commanding grandeur.

'All this coast is one stupendous mass of rude, rocky, and bold mountains; connected together by lesser ones of various and uncommon shapes. The tops of some rise into lofty cones; while others, assuming a more level and unbroken form, stretch out far beyond the others, into the sea, and form capes or points indented with the bays I have already mentioned.

'To those who have been accustomed to see only the level shores of England, the appearance of this whole coast is awfully grand. The immense masses which rise in many places almost perpendicularly from the sea, and are lost among the clouds; the vast gullies and caverns, which seem to sink to an immeasurable depth amidst these stupendous mountains; the long extended ledges of rock, over which in a few places are scattered some tufts of stunted trees and withered shrubs; the successive ridges of white sandy hills, each of which appears like a valley to the one by which it is surmounted; the terrible surf which is continually raging on the beach, along which these ridges are stretched; with the spray which is thrown to an immense height by the waves recoiling from the more rocky parts —all these objects rushing at once upon the eye of those who approach the Cape, produce an effect which can be but faintly conveyed by description.' P. 17.

The next paragraph diminishes very much in our estimation the probability of the tops of the mountains being lost in the clouds, except when they are low, though it describes a circumstance worthy of notice.

'This surf which is driven towards the land with such fury, produces a phenomenon in the sandy deserts, even far removed from the sea. In the time of the violent south-east winds it is carried to a great distance into the country, presenting the appearance of a thick mist. It gradually quits the atmosphere, lighting on the trees and herbs, and lining the surface of the sands. On the commencement of the rainy season it is again dissolved; and being carried off by the streams which are then formed, it is lodged in a number of small lakes, which, by a natural process, in time become absolute salt pans; and thence it is that the Dutch colonists collect the salt which supplies their consumption. A person walking on the sandy beach during the continuance of the south-east winds, so as to be exposed to its influence, soon finds his cloaths covered and incrusted with saline particles; while his skin is quite parched up, and his lips begin to feel their effects very sensibly.' P. 18.

Now if the coast was guarded by 'cloud-capt mountains,' the surf, however great, could rise to a very small height at the mountain's foot; and the vapour, by the time it had reached the top of the Alp, would be too slightly impregnated with salt to deposit any quantity in the interior.

The Dutch do not seem to have derived by any means that profit from the colony, which from its situation and internal advantages it was calculated to produce. On this account we enter into the feelings of the writer, in pointing out the propriety of transferring it into better hands: and we cannot doubt that the inhabitants of every description would be much better under the principles and manners of English rulers. The short time that it was in our possession, introduced many advantageous changes; and the laziness of the Dutch colonist gave way to the activity of the British settler. The Dutch at Cape Town and its neighbourhood retain many features of their original country. The cleanliness of their houses marks the character of the women, and the love of gain that of the men. The boor also of the interior is only a degree inferior in civilisation to his brethren, who live on the borders of the Rhine adjacent to Holland.

'Though the country abounds with whatever can make life comfortable, yet the boor of the distant parts of the colony seems not to have the power of enjoying those blessings which are within his reach, and absolutely in his possession. Oxen he has in abundance, but rarely uses any for food; milk and butter overflow with him, yet he seldom tastes them; wine, which is so cheap, so easily procured, where almost every farm produces it, he rarely or never drinks. His house is poor, mean, and incommodious; although it might easily be rendered comfortable, even without his own bodily labour, as he has always a sufficient number of slaves for all his purposes. The rooms are dirty and smoky in the extreme; the walls covered with spiders, and their webs, of an enormous size; vermin and filth are never removed from the floors till absolute necessity compels the indolent inhabitants to this exertion. The articles of furniture are but few; an old table, two or three broken chairs, a few plates and kitchen utensils, with a couple of large chests, commonly comprise the whole. Indifferent bread and vegetables, stewed in sheep's fat, are their usual fare; and when they eat meat, masses of mutton are served up in grease; this luxury they devour in great quantities, bolting it down as some of our porters would for a wager. Smoaking all the morning, and sleeping after dinner, constitute the great luxury of the boor; unwilling to work himself, he lords it over his slaves and hired Hottentots. At a middling age he is carried off by a dropsy, or some disease contracted by indolence and eating to excess. When he drinks, he constantly uses that poisonous hot spirit called brandy-wine, or geneva when he can procure it.

'The women pass a lazy, listless, and inactive life. After having regaled herself with a cup of coffee for breakfast, the lady of the house sits at her ease in a corner till the next meal-time, seeming absolutely fixed to an old clumsy chair. Little of female delicacy is to be expected about her; a coarse loose dress thrown about the shoulders leaves many parts of the person altogether exposed. Of beauty the females can rarely boast; they generally go bare-footed, their feet are washed by the male as well as the female slaves; nor do they make any ceremony of having this office performed before strangers. No amusement varies the scene with them, but one day is like all the rest of the year. They propagate children fast for the first ten or twelve years after marriage; but leave off breeding much sooner than the females of most other countries. It is not unusual to see eight or nine children all born in regular gradation, within a year of each other, adding to the domestic comforts by squalling and domineering over those of the slaves; for the first lesson they are taught is their superiority over the unfortunate Africans.'

P. 204.

The boor, degraded as he may appear in the eyes of an English gentleman farmer, is as respectable for his line of life as the more polished inhabitant of the Cape, who has very few ideas beyond that of smoking, eating, and casting accounts. This class is described in too prolix a manner for us to insert the whole of the author's remarks upon it, but its general character will be understood from the following particulars:

'The men rise early in the morning, and make their appearance in a loose robe and night-cap before their doors; then walk or sit in the porch for an hour or two with a pipe in their mouths, and a slave by their side holding a glass and a small decanter of gin, from which the master every now and then takes his soupkie or glass. Let an Englishman rise ever so early, he will see Mynheer sitting in his stoop or porch, or parading the front of his house in the manner I have described. There are many who get up two or three times in the night to enjoy a pipe; and so much are they accustomed to this luxury that they cannot on any account dispense with it. About eight they dress, first smoking their quantum; after which they sit down to breakfast, which generally consists of a quantity of gross food besides coffee, tea, and fruit of all kinds. They then smoke another pipe, and go about their mercantile concerns till about one o'clock, when dinner commences, which also consists of a quantity of gross and oily dressed meat, with fruit, &c. as a dessert. A more particular description of their tables I shall give presently. When they have regaled themselves another hour with their darling pipe, they lie down to their nap, which continues till evening; they then rise, and perhaps take a walk or pay formal visits, but are always sure to smoke wherever they go. Coffee and gin succeed, accompanied with their pipe till about nine, when supper is introduced, and when that is finished, after another hour's fumigating, they retire to bed, gorged with

heavy food, and perhaps destined to spend the remainder of the night with all the horrors arising from indigestion. A continual round of this mode of passing their time sums up the existence of the Dutch colonists of Cape Town, exhibiting a most lamentable picture of laziness and indolent stupidity. As their education is very limited, refined and polished manners, or any extent of knowledge, are not to be expected amongst them. The public schools at the Cape are few; and education never goes beyond a little writing and accompts, merely to qualify them for trade, and to enable them to hold places in the offices of the East-India Company.

'Every man at the Cape is a merchant in some way or other; the whole study of the inhabitants being to make money, and they contrive to do so in numberless ways. Every Dutch gentleman, no matter whether he be a count, colonel, captain, mynheer, or what rank you please, looks to trade as the main chance; though there are some of those titled merchants, and trading officers, who from pride endeavour in some measure to conceal their own immediate connection with mercantile concerns, and carry on business by means of their slaves, and the inferior order of people. The Governor excepted, every inhabitant both civil and military, keeps a lodging-house for the entertainment of passengers touching at the Cape. Colonel Dalrymple, the commanding officer of the regiment to which I belonged, was accommodated with board and lodging on his arrival at the house of a colonel in the Dutch service. This they look upon in a different light from what we would in Europe; for how much we would think our service degraded if our officers kept board and lodging-houses, a genteel term for a tavern? However they plead the necessity of doing so, their pay being so very small, that they must have recourse to some other method of getting money to support themselves and their families; and their government have never made any objection or ever noticed this custom in their officers.' P. 254.

The ladies, when they are young, possess many estimable qualities, but, as they advance in years, approach very nearly in manners, and behaviour, and train of thinking, to their husbands.

'Though the young women are often so engaging in their persons, it is rare to see a married woman of a middling age who is not clumsy in shape, and indolent, and slovenly in her habits. In the married state they turn quite domestic, and seldom go out of their houses; they seem to copy their husbands in every thing but smoking. Indeed one good reason for their keeping so much at home is, that their houses being open for the reception of passengers touching continually at the Cape, have generally at all times of the year foreigners of every nation residing in them. This requires their being for the most part at home, to attend to their guests and the management of their houses. It has been alleged, though I speak not from my own observation or knowledge, that the mar-

ried women are not so correct in their conduct, as before they entered into that state. I must however say of them, that to me they always seemed to be exceedingly attached to their husbands, and devoted to their family concerns. A few instances had certainly occurred of infidelity in married women, which were openly spoken of; but these were far from being so numerous as to throw any stain on the general character of the matrons at the Cape' P. 278.

To this character it is necessary to add only another trait, which shews to how great a degree the human mind may be debased in every situation where slavery is admitted.

'The Dutch ladies have no reluctance to their slave girls having connection with their guests, in hopes of profiting by it, by their being got with child. I myself know instances where they have been ordered to wait on such a gentleman to his bed-room; what followed does not require to be mentioned. One of my friends, whose veracity I have not the least doubt of, assured me that a very engaging slave girl, to whom he paid his addresses, and who seemed exceedingly coy and reserved, was one night pushed into his room by the mistress of the house, who locked the door and left her with him.' P. 291.

The excuse that is generally made for the necessity of slavery in the West Indies, cannot be allowed at the Cape, where the climate is as favourable to the labour of Europeans as that of their own country. But Dutch avarice introduced the abominable practice, by which their colony is overrun by slaves of various countries, and in consequence the masters have become proportionably lazy and incapable of cultivating the soil to the best advantage. It must be a long time, if the English should obtain possession of the Cape, before the bad effects of this policy can be eradicated, and the mass of vice encouraged by slavery be exchanged for the active and virtuous habits of English labourers. After an accurate description of the various classes of slaves employed in the colony, their general character is thus summed up.

'The Caffree negro, and different races of Buganese and Ethiopians, are given to vicious habits. Morose, sulky, and obstinate, but without having recourse to vindictive or sanguinary measures of revenge against their masters; requiring coercive measures to oblige them to labour, and avoiding it whenever an opportunity offers. The Asiatics of the Moor and Malabar race are humble, submissive, willing to do whatever lies in their power, fearful of offending and grateful for favours, seldom trespassing on indulgence; their master's interests they consider as their own, and are highly attached to his children, and seem to have no wish beyond the state in which they are placed by fortune. The Malay character is that of implacable and blood-thirsty revenge; they undauntedly endure

their masters' reproaches and blows, meditating all the while a severe and sanguinary revenge. With the same firmness they go to the place of execution, and whilst life is in them never regret the atrocious deed which brings them to an untimely end. Instances of murder have too frequently been committed by those people. The Dutch executed them by the greatest torments; and broke them on the rack and wheel. In cases where a clear evidence was not obtained of the fact committed, their court of justice extorted it by inflicting tortures like the court of inquisition in Spain and Portugal. Those laws, and this mode of execution, have been abolished by the English, and the criminal executed by hanging. It has been often observed that fewer instances happened of those murders being committed by the slaves, and fewer executions took place, during the time that we had possession of the Cape, than in any one period of the same length under the Dutch government, by one to five; so that the cruel tortures which the Dutch inflicted were far from restraining the perpetration of crimes.' P. 297.

The character of the native Hottentot corresponds with that given by various travellers into the interior; but none have entered into so minute a detail of the manners of the colonists, nor described so well the country of which they are in possession, as our author. The views of other writers were generally more extensive, but in this work the peculiarities of the country in animals and vegetables are sufficiently noticed: indeed so much had already been advanced upon these subjects, that the repetition of them in this work might well have been spared. The prolixity of the narration is indeed the chief objection to the book, which we must not however censure too severely, since the writer seems to have been equally aware, that it was liable to this remark, and desirous, if he had been in sufficient leisure, to avoid it. 'His early entrance into the military profession, and the consequent employments which have prevented him from pursuing a regular plan of study, are the excuses which he offered in his former work for the want of scientific language, and a more systematic mode of composition.' In another place also a similar apology is made. 'For the inaccuracy of arrangement and the errors of composition, it would be necessary for me to offer many apologies, were I not convinced that a candid public will readily find an excuse for such imperfections in the works of an author, who is obliged, even while he holds the pen, to attend to his military duties at this momentous crisis.'

Criticism is almost disarmed when so powerful an appeal is made to the feelings of humanity: yet we cannot in return do otherwise than appeal to the author himself, whether some limits may not be assigned to the indulgence of the public? This advice to officers, to give the world an account of the different stations to which they are sent, (Page 7), we strenuously re-

commend; but if every military writer should claim, on account of his profession, peculiar privileges, the press would groan with the weight of their labours, and few libraries would be able to afford room for the description of spots which they have occupied.

If a military officer on a distant post will take with him his quadrants and compass, and measure the heights of hills and promontories, and observe the bearings of the most remarkable spots, we shall in a short time and in small compass possess a great mass of information. From his pen too we shall expect some entertainment in the description of the face of the country, and the manners of its inhabitants: for the military profession is not unfriendly to the muses, and two of the most celebrated generals of antiquity, Xenophon and Cæsar, excelled no less with the pen than the sword. A little more time also should be allotted to the preparation of his work for the press: in which he will consider what has been done by other writers, and if an animal or a vegetable peculiar to the spot has been frequently described, and is familiarised to the English reader, he will not think it necessary to increase his pages by superfluous descriptions. Our author had not time to make his work so perfect as he might have done, by compressing the contents of his journal into a narrower compass: but he has given an abundance of materials, from which, and the writings of travellers into the interior of Africa, a pocket volume might be made, of great use to all who are detained at the Cape in their voyage to the East Indies. The military observations in this work will be also found particularly useful on another expedition to the Cape, when we doubt not that it will fall with little opposition into our hands, and the hopes of its improvement entertained by the author will then be realised. A candid public will, we can assure him, still smile upon his labours, from which we have derived much entertainment and instruction.

ART. VI.—*Fleetwood; or the New Man of Feeling. By William Godwin.* 3 *Vols.* 15*s.* Phillips. 1805.

WE opened, with a mixture of curiosity, doubt, and satisfaction, the book before us; curious to see the contents of a new novel from the extra-ordinary pen of Mr. Godwin; doubtful of its tendency; and satisfied that it would prove in some degree entertaining. But although upon perusal, our fears of what might be the nature of its principles were totally removed, we confess our curiosity was little gratified by the common incidents of the life of Fleetwood. Mr. Godwin certainly suc-

ceeds best in the description of astonishing and uncommon scenes. His mind is not of that playful cast, suited to detect and expose, with good-humoured ridicule, the absurd conduct of the characters in ordinary life. His heroes have ever stood alone in the world, beings of his own creative imagination, isolated by a dissimilarity of feeling and of passion from their fellow-men, and either on this account voluntary exiles, or excluded by unmerited odium from society. These are creatures who cannot move with dignity through the uninteresting routine of vulgar incidents; they must become, to excite our interest, the objects of persecution, or of awful wonder; hemmed in by a magic circle of their own, uninterrupted by trifling mortals, and solely occupied in the fulfilment of their great and peculiar destinies. With anxiety, kept up by a succession of undeserved misfortunes, we followed Caleb Williams to the catastrophe of Falkland; but we execrated the vile insinuations thrown out, in the course of the story, against our noble code of laws. We were fascinated, in spite of our judgment, with the miraculous inventions of St. Leon; and pleased with the *palinodia* there published, of some obnoxious opinions before delivered to the world, we believe hastily, rather than with a foresight of the dangerous inferences that might be drawn from them. But the tale of 'the new Man of Feeling,' as Mr. Godwin apprizes us in its preface, is almost devoid of any but the most usual occurrences in the lives of those who rank in the upper stations of the middle order of society. The hero is brought up in seclusion by a worthy father; imbibes a fondness for solitary rambles and reveries; and grows abstracted from the consideration of common things by the daily sight of the stupendous phenomena of nature, among the mountains and cataracts of Wales. This is a grand beginning; but alas! producing *fumum ex fulgore*. The scene is then removed to Oxford. Here our recluse degenerates into an idle gownsman, and mixes in the stale unprofitable sports of his companions. One of their 'tricks upon freshmen' is recorded; the jest lies in making an unhappy poet believe he is held in the highest admiration by the society, and entrapping him into a public reading of his virgin tragedy upon the fifth labour of Hercules, the cleansing of the Augean stables. This is told with much humour, which pleased us the more as it was unexpected in the pages of Mr. Godwin. It is possible that he has rather disdained attempts of this kind, than felt unequal to them.—

The scene now changes to Paris, where Fleetwood is involved in the debauchery of the latter years of the reign of Louis XV. Here we have to mention a duty Mr. Godwin has never violated; that of avoiding all occasions of indecent language in the choice of his scenes and incidents. Even where

he is attracted by the detail of his story towards danger, he slightly passes over the subject, and may be allowed in its fullest extent, the following honest boast. p. 126. 'I write no book, that shall tend to nourish the pruriency of the debauched, or shall excite one painful emotion, one instant of debate, in the bosom of the virtuous and the chaste.' It were to be wished that this could be said with equal truth of all the novelists of the present day. We have, however, to object to some expressions of Mr. Godwin, where he has trespassed even in more serious matters—talking of the education his father gave him, the *new Man of Feeling* says,

'He *hired* me a private tutor. I was perhaps sufficiently fortunate in the character of the person who was thus established in our house. He was not a clergyman. He did not shackle my mind with complex and unintelligible creeds, nor did he exhibit that monastic coldness and squareness of character which is too frequently the result of clerical celibacy. He was however a man of morals, and of religion. But religion was distinguished in his mind more by sentiments than opinions. Whatever related to his conduct toward God or man was regulated principally by a desire to satisfy his own conscience and obtain his own approbation, not to maintain a certain character and name in the world.'

This is intolerably illiberal; both the attack and the manner of it. Gibbon has taught our writers this detestable mode of implication; this undermining of one character, by saying what another was not.

Mr. Godwin, without intending it, has described very nobly the arraignment of our blessed Lord at the tribunal of injustice:

'Innocence is nothing, if it is merely innocence. It is a guileless nature, when impleaded at a stern and inhuman bar, when dragged out to contumely and punishment, when lifting up its head in conscious honour, when heaven itself seems to interpose to confound the malice of men, and declares, This is the virtue that I approve! there, there is presented to us the most ravishing spectacle that earth can boast.' Vol. III. p. 341.

But in page 12, vol. ii. there is a very improper passage upon this most sacred of all subjects:

'The offerings of gold, frankincense and myrrh, presented by the wise men of the East, were not more acceptable to the mother of Jesus, than this homely roll and butter were to me at this moment.'

The levity of this comparison is unpardonable.

Our hero now joins the friend of his family in Switzerland, where this venerable old man endeavours to reclaim him from his vices. He does not adopt the old method of admonition; but, with (at first) some impenetrability of design, he chuses a beautiful evening for an excursion on the lake of Uri; he warms the mind of the young enthusiast (as Fleetwood suddenly becomes again, though not unnaturally, from being restored to scenes similar to those in which he spent his infancy) with the contemplation of the rocks, where was kindled the flame of liberty that spread over Switzerland; but we will extract the whole passage, and let Mr. Godwin speak for himself, for we think he never spoke to better purpose.

'In the course of our excursion M. Ruffigny pointed out to me the various spots still so dear to the genius of freedom: Gruti, the village where the three heroes of Switzerland planned their undertaking; Brunnen, where the fundamental league between their respective cantons was concluded; Kussnacht, the scene where an arrow from the bow of Tell reached the heart of Gesler, his own oppressor, and the oppressor of his country; and Morgarten and Sempach, the fields in which those celebrated combats were fought, that fixed the liberties of Switzerland on a basis which has endured the shock of ages. All these places were within such a distance that we either actually visited them in the course of the day, or discerned them almost in full detail, from the tops of the neighbouring eminences.

'After having sated my curiosity in the examination of these venerable scenes, we returned in the afternoon by the lake of Uri. It was along this lake that Tell is related to have been conveyed in fetters by Gesler, that he might be removed from his countrymen, and shut up in one of the dungeons reserved by the tyrant for the intrepid and the honest. As they rowed along, a violent tempest arose. The shores on both sides are extremely craggy and dangerous; and the tyrant began to fear that his boat would be dashed to pieces against these insuperable precipices. Tell, perfect in the accomplishments of a Swiss peasant, and endowed with a firm and adventurous temper, surpassed his contemporaries in the art of navigating his native lakes. Gesler knew this, and, trembling for his coward life, ordered the fetters to be struck off from his prisoner, and the helm to be put into his hand. Tell used the opportunity which was given him. There are not above two or three points in the whole circumference of this lake, where it is practicable to land. Tell steered his boat toward the most rugged of these, leaped suddenly upon the rock, climbed with inconceivable adroitness up the precipice, and returned once more to his longing countrymen and confederates. A chapel, erected by admiring posterity, on the spot, consecrates the memory of this magnanimous and important achievement.

'One thing surprised me upon reflection in the conduct of M. Ruffigny. He had received me with particular kindness; yet he

did not so much as mention to me the name of my father. I knew that the connection between them was of the most confidential nature, and including a variety of important obligations, though I was a stranger to the particulars. My host did not enquire when I had heard from my father. He might indeed have received letters as lately as I could have done. But he did not ask me respecting his health, his vigour, his sentiments, his habits, a thousand minutiæ to which ocular inspection alone can qualify a man to speak. It is so natural for a friend to be anxious about these, and to think he can never talk or hear enough upon these interesting topics!

'After having busily employed ourselves in discovering and examining the various memorable objects which occurred in our route, we now passed quietly and silently along the lake. It was a deep and narrow water, about nine miles in length, and skirted on both sides with rocks uncommonly wild and romantic, some perpendicular, some stretching over our heads, and intercepting the view of the upper sky, and clothed for the most part with forests of beech and pine, that extended themselves down to the very edge of the water. The lake was as smooth as crystal, and the arching precipices that inclosed it gave a peculiar solemnity to the gloom. As we passed near the chapel of Tell, the bell happened to toll forth, as if for a funeral. The sound was full; the effect melancholy; each reverberation of the metal was prolonged among the echoes of the rocks. This continued for about fifteen minutes, and then ceased.

'We were attended by only two rowers and a steersman, labourers in the corn fields and garden of M. Ruffigny. Shortly after we had passed the chapel, the rowers suspended their labour, and we glided in silence over the water. We had been so busied in action and conversation during the whole of the morning, that the stillness which now succeeded seemed perfectly unforced and natural. I sunk into a deep reverie. I thought of William Tell, and the glorious founders of the Swiss liberty; I thought of the simple manners which still prevail in the primitive cantons; I felt as if I were in the wildest and most luxuriant of the uninhabited islands of the South Sea. I was lost in visions of paradise, of habitations and bowers among the celestial orbs, of things supernatural and remote, of the unincumbered spirits of the virtuous and the just, of the pure rewards and enjoyments of a happier state. I had forgotten Switzerland, and M. Ruffigny, and the world, and myself.

'Accidentally I lifted my eye, and saw the countenance of my host fixed upon me with peculiar intentness; a tear moistened the furrows of his cheeks. This spectacle recalled me to the reality of things about me; but my heart was softened by the images which had passed through my thoughts, and I could not speak.

'I have not named your father to you, said M. Ruffigny.

'My dear father!—His name, uttered at that moment, awakened the best feelings of my soul.

'Casimir! Casimir Fleetwood! exclaimed my host, where have you been?

'In France: at Paris.

'How have you been employed?

'Not well. My father sent me forth for improvement; but I have been employed in libertinism and dissipation.

'Fleetwood, I also am your father. And I will not be less indulgent, scarcely less anxious, than your natural parent. You know in gross, though you do not know in detail, the peculiar attachment I feel for every thing that bears the name of Fleetwood. Am I not your father?

'This, sir, is the third day that I have ever seen you; I know little of you yet; the little I have observed has scarcely had time to strike its fibres deep in my bosom. But all that I do know makes me presume that, were I worthy of the honour, you are the person of all mankind whom I should prefer for an adoptive parent.

'Casimir! my dear Casimir! let not your ears for ever abhor the sound of my voice; let not my form and my visage be for ever loathsome in your sight!—I cannot speak—

'I understand you, sir. My father is dead!

'Ruffigny held forward to me a letter. I took it from him; I gazed mechanically on the superscription, but could not make out a syllable. My friend drew nearer to me; he put his arm round me, as I sat; I rested my head on his shoulder, and burst into a flood of tears.

'The communication of this melancholy intelligence no doubt affected me very differently from what it would otherwise have done, in consequence of the frame of mind, which this day's excursion, and the various objects I had beheld, produced in me. My sensibility was increased by the preparation, and the impression I received was by so much the deeper. I do not pretend to divine Ruffigny's motives for so contriving the scene. Perhaps he knew enough of human nature to believe that it rarely happened to a son in the bloom of life, to break his heart for the loss of an aged parent. Perhaps he understood and disapproved of the train of life in which I had lately been engaged, and thought the thus softening my heart the most effectual way of recalling me to my better self.

'Why, sir, cried I mournfully, did you suffer me to remain a moment in ignorance of this dreadful intelligence? Why all this pomp of preparation? What are scenery, and patriotism, and heroes, and the achievements of past ages to me? What have I to do with all this world?—My father! my only friend!—Where have I been? Losing myself, while you stood in need of my consolation! Breaking through every plan that was arranged, loitering away my time among the frivolities and licentiousness of Paris, while you laid down an aching head in solitude, while your pulses failed, and your eyes were closed in darkness! Would to God it were in my power to recall a few past months!—No matter! My prospects and my pleasures are finished; my life is tarnished; my peace is destroyed; I shall never again think of myself with approbation, or with patience!

'I did not say all this aloud, though a part of it I did. The

short time I had passed with Ruffigny was yet long enough to make me feel no sort of constraint in his presence. On the present occasion he did not attempt to console me; he left my grief to its natural course; we finished our voyage in silence. By degrees, as I recovered the use of my reason, I felt myself grateful for his kindness, and respected his judgment in this forbearance.

'The night of the day I have described did not pass in repose. Amidst short and disturbed slumbers I saw my father, I heard his voice. I roused myself, and returned to recollection. Dead? said I. Impossible!—Let the reader remember what I have already said of him, 'He was the wisest and best man I knew. He had all those advantages from nature, and from the external endowments of fortune, which were calculated to maintain my reverence. We had gradually become more qualified for each other's society and confidence. Our characters had many points of resemblance: we were both serious, both contemplative, both averse to the commerce of the world.'—This dear friend, this sharer in all my interests, should I never meet again? The well-known mansion in Merionethshire, in which I had passed all my boyish days, should I find it vacant of its respected inhabitant? That mild and affectionate countenance, which for many years I had beheld every day, almost at every hour, should I never again behold it? Sometimes he was my play-fellow, and even shared in my childish amusements. The little implements and mechanical contrivances upon which my boyish thoughts were employed, and which my desires panted to realise, he would often lend his hand to assist me to form. His lessons were so paternal, so indulgent, so considerate, so well adapted to my opening powers! The confidences he occasionally reposed in me, were so cordial! His descriptions and pictures of things to excite my curiosity and emulation were so admirable! I remembered how his manner successively adapted itself to my growing years and demands, from prattling infancy to the full stature of man. All these things rose at first confusedly to my mind, and jostled each other. Sometimes I endeavoured with melancholy industry to arrange them; at other times I threw the reins on the neck of my imagination, and resigned myself to the guidance of fortuitous associations. My life, said I, under the roof of my father, was the reality of life. The period I spent at Oxford and Paris was an interval of incoherence and inebriety. And this is all now ended! The reality of existence is for ever gone!

'Why is it that, from the hour I heard of my father's decease to the present distant period, the remembrance of that melancholy event has always become associated in my mind, with the rocks of Switzerland, and the lake of Uri? One of the most affecting of the catastrophes that beset this mortal existence, with what is most solemn and sublime in the aspect of the universe? Grief in all human minds soon assumes the character of a luxury to be indulged, as well as of a pain to be endured. The mourner recollects with complacency the tenderness of his heart and the purity of his feelings. The conscious recurrence of the scene in which my grief began, gave in my case to the grief itself a new merit at

the tribunal of sentiment and taste. Honoured, beloved, ever-to-be-regretted author of my life! Never were the ashes of an eastern monarch attended with so magnificent a funeral! The deep glen of the dark and tranquil lake of Uri was the cathedral in which the rites were solemnised! The chapel of the immortal Tell tolled out its bell to proclaim the ceremony! The patriots who, five centuries ago, established the independence of Switzerland, composed the procession that attended thee to the grave! All these images are for ever worked up together, and constitute in my memory one melancholy and indelible scene!'

We have to except the above from what we said concerning the commonness of the scenes in which the character of Fleetwood is developed. The episode also of the early life of M. Ruffigny; where he sets out for Paris from Lyons, alone, and on foot, at nine years of age, is sufficiently improbable. In the last volume too there are some striking situations—particularly that in which the wife of Fleetwood is found (page 81): and the atrocious character Mr. Godwin has called 'Gifford,' is certainly as boldly drawn as the warmest admirer of the marvellous and horrible could desire. Of the softer scenes, the one at the conclusion of the second volume is very beautifully painted; it is upon the marriage of Fleetwood to a very amiable girl, the daughter of a deceased friend, bequeathed to the care of this *new* man of feeling, who uses her most cruelly from an unjust suspicion of her infidelity instilled into him by his perfidious kinsman Gifford, and is afterwards reconciled to her: but we have already made an extract of greater length, from a work of so small importance as a novel, than we should have done, had it not proceeded from the pen of so well-known an author as Mr. Godwin. We wish we could present our readers with two further extracts; one relating to the character of Rousseau, and the other strongly descriptive of Mr. Godwin's idea of the proper style of novel-writing; which is not to make us acquainted with his hero by a minute relation of the incidents of his life, as Fielding and others have done; but by favouring us with his soliloquies and reflections upon men and manners. His chief characters are all metaphysicians; who are reasoning when they should be acting; but who reason in so extraordinary a manner, that they rivet our attention. In Vol. II. page 153-4, the reader will find what we think rather a tantalizing picture of what Mr. Godwin *might* have done, had he pleased, in this book.

Of Rousseau too we are told (vol. ii. p. 179) that our hero was in possession of several curious anecdotes, but they are withheld from us; for Mr. Godwin confines himself to '*generals*'—to drawing character, not by the exposure of its own traits, but by presuming that they exist, and animadverting upon them.

The story of Fleetwood is chiefly intended, we conclude, to inculcate 'the folly of ill-sorted marriages, in point of age.' The remarks upon the force of habits, unalterably fixed by the peculiarity of an early education in solitude, and working upon a naturally selfish disposition during a long single life, are forcible and judicious—old things well repeated. But we are at a loss to conceive why a man, who turns misanthrope from disappointment, who is most savage in jealousy without caring to ascertain the cause of it, can be called the *New Man of Feeling*, unless in absolute contradistinction to the old.

Upon the whole, we think the present publication likely to add much to Mr. Godwin's literary character, from the entertainment its story will, we are confident, afford to a numerous class of readers, and from the improved purity of the author's style. Nor will there be wanting those, we hope, in a candid public, who will, in justice, welcome 'Fleetwood' the more warmly, as it is a perfectly harmless book, coming from the pen of an individual, upon whose more early writings that justice has pronounced the severest censure.

ART. VII.—*Newenham's Inquiry into the Population of Ireland.* (*Concluded from page* 201.)

WE left Mr. Newenham on the point of entering into a discussion on the foreign and domestic trade of the sister kingdom.

We find that the exports and imports of Ireland, in 1783, were about 6,000,000l.; in 1788, above 8,000,000l.; in 1793, 9,000,000l.; in 1798, about 7,600,000l. only; in 1803, above 11,000,000l.; and that there was a decrease of nearly 1,000,000l. in the succeeding year. To 1799 the exports exceeded the imports; since which time the imports have gained the ascendancy. We have an account of the balance of trade between England and Ireland during the last century; some indistinct ideas upon the rate of exchange; and a most erroneous statement of the number of guineas sent to and received from Ireland.

Much more extensive and extremely useful information, upon these subjects, may be extracted from the minutes of the Irish exchange committee; but we are at a loss to see how any of these things afford decisive proofs of the rapidity of increasing population, much less how they can distinctly shew that Ireland will double its population in forty-six years; or that the present annual increase amounts to above 91,000 souls.

Upon the subject of specie in Ireland, we have the following remark.

'Those who attribute the disappearance of specie in Ireland to an unfavourable balance of trade, are certainly in error. The payment of the balance, during these last five years, admitting the balance to have been unfavourable, could scarcely have produced a perceptible effect in that country, wherein specie had been accumulating during many years. From the following account of guineas sent to, and received from Ireland, we may infer that the balance of trade had no great effect in diminishing the mass of gold in that country:

	Sent to.		Received from.	
1795	633,782		53,200	By the Holyhead mail-coach; and exclusive of the guineas for which insurance was not paid.
1796	579,000		29,430	
1797	733,359		5,600	
1798	684,280			
1799	191,228			
		1800	66,000	
	2,821,649	1801	235,000	
			389,230	

'The fact is, that nine-tenths of the gold which has been withdrawn from circulation, are actually hoarded up.*'

We are not a little surprised that Mr. Newenham should have asserted a fact so contrary to the clearest evidence. By the examination of Mr. Frank before the Irish committee, it appears that 3,000,000 of guineas have been sent out of Ireland since the first of January 1799, and that none have been received. Above 1,000,000 of this passed through his own hands, and the remainder is pretty distinctly accounted for. The amount of gold now in Ireland is estimated at 2,000,000, of which half a million is supposed to be in circulation in the north of Ireland; about 700,000 in the Bank of Ireland; and the residue, or 800,000, in circulation in other parts of the country, and hoarded.

'*A great variety of anecdotes, illustrative of this fact, might be related, the following one will suffice: A representative of one of the southern counties of Ireland, a gentleman, on whose scrupulous veracity I have long been in the habit of relying; whose character, indeed, exhibits an extraordinary bright assemblage of all the more amiable and exalted moral qualities, informed me that shortly before he left his country residence last spring, in order to attend parliament, he was waited on by one of his tenants, a farmer, who holds from him about 200 acres, but whose mode of living, with respect to diet, like that of most persons of his description, at least in the provinces of Munster and Connaught, differs, notwithstanding, but very little from the mode of living which prevails among the Irish labourers. The object of the farmer's visit was, as he said, to accommodate his landlord with a few guineas; as he heard they were as scarce in England as Ireland. The latter thanked him; but declined accepting his offer, having provided a sufficiency for his

In the eighth section we have rather an amusing digression concerning absentees. In a pamphlet, said to be written by Mr. Thomas Prior in 1729, it is stated, that the annual remittances to absentees amounted to 627,799l.—In 1778, Mr. Arthur Young computes the landlords' rents in Ireland at six millions, and was of opinion that the money remitted to absentees exceeded one million. Our author thinks there can be no doubt that the rental of Ireland has more than doubled within the last six and twenty years, that the absentees have become more numerous, and that the actual remittances to them do not fall much short of three millions, or one fourth part of the whole amount.—We cannot but think this statement highly exaggerated. The report of the Irish committee states these remittances at only two millions. It is sufficient, however, to impress Mr. Newenham's mind with most alarming considerations, and he proposes to remedy the evil, in some degree, by imposing a tax on the incomes of absentee landlords.

By a law of the state of South Carolina, persons who absent themselves two years are liable to pay double the amount of the direct taxes, until they return. Though a measure of little consequence, as applicable to one of the United States, its general policy may be much doubted, and at any rate the plan here proposed is so vague, and apparently impracticable, that it does not merit much attention. The imposition of such a tax is not likely to conciliate the minds of landlords, or to induce more constant residence upon their estates. When by the gradual progress of civilization and the growing prosperity of the surrounding country, an invitation is held out to opulent landlords to visit their estates, interest as well as pleasure will frequently bring them where more than in any other place they can enjoy their influence and consequence with undisturbed comfort and security. Besides, though the non-residence of men of fortune on their estates is in many respects a great misfortune to Ireland, its effects upon the productive industry of the country are not of the alarming nature Mr. Newenham supposes. We are not inclined to give more credit to his assertions on this head than to the report of the committee, of which Mr. Foster was chairman; but to enter further into this subject at present would withdraw our attention too much from the proper object of the present inquiry.

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occasions. The farmer was greatly distressed by the refusal, and entreated his landlord to take the gold, as he feared to keep it any longer in his house. This occasioned an inquiry as to the amount of the sum; and the landlord was not a little surprised at the farmer's producing a bag containing 500 guineas.'

Mr. Newenham next gives us a circumstantial account of different branches of the export trade of Ireland, as an illustration of a rapid increase of its inhabitants. We shall not follow him through his minute details, but will give the result in his own words:

'Let us now, for the better illustration of the subject before us, compress within a narrow compass the substance of the information which we have obtained from a comparative view of the trade of Ireland at different periods.

'We have seen that notwithstanding an evident increase of pasturage, the exportation of corn from Ireland has been trebled in the last twenty-one years; and we have found ample reason for being persuaded, that agriculture, which Montesquieu calls an immense manufacture, is actually six times as extensive in that country as it was anterior to the year 1783. We have seen that the exportation of pork, whereby we are sufficiently warranted in measuring the increase of the lower orders of the country people, has been doubled in the last three-and-twenty years, under the operation of contingent circumstances, tending, in a conspicuous manner, to diminish its exportation; and that before the operation of all, but during that of one of these circumstances, its exportation had nearly trebled in eighteen years. We have seen that the products of the breweries and distilleries of Ireland have experienced a prodigious and unprecedented increase. We have seen that the linen manufacture, which directly and eventually affords employment to such multitudes of people, and of which the value of the surplus produce last year amounted to 3,751,829l. has (a suitable allowance being made for the increase of the home consumption) almost doubled in the last twenty-one years. We have seen from the total cessation of the exportation of an immense quantity of wool and yarn from Ireland, and from the existing evidences of an increase of sheep, that the manufacture, at least of the inferior woollen fabrics, has been greatly extended in that country. We have seen that the importation of the raw materials for the cotton manufacture, which gives employment to so many thousands, has increased in an unparalleled degree. We have seen that the exports of glass, paper, candles, soap, &c. have more than doubled in the last three-and-twenty years; and we have sufficient reason for believing that the aggregate produce of these manufactures is thrice as great as it was five-and-twenty years ago. We have seen some new articles in the list of the exported manufactures of Ireland, and there exists no evidence of the decline of any manufacture in that country, except, perhaps, the silk.

'We are then, it seems, perfectly enabled by public documents, of indisputable authenticity, to affirm that, upon the whole, the demand for labour, in Ireland, has doubled in the last one-and-twenty years. And we find ourselves compelled by considerations, which cannot be set aside, to entertain a persuasion that such demand has been much more than doubled in that period of time;

and of course it should seem that the number of people employed has been doubled also.

'We have seen that the importation of coal has been almost doubled in the last two-and-twenty years: that the importation of old drapery has been quadrupled in the last twenty-one years: that the importation of tobacco has been nearly doubled in the last twenty-one years: that the importation of tea has been nearly doubled in twenty-one years: and that the importation of sugar has been more than doubled in the same period.

'This amazing increase in the importation of articles for home consumption, cannot, it is true, be considered as indicative of a proportionate increase of population, although the demonstrated increase in the exportation of articles which require the labour of so many thousands, seems to warrant the opinion, because an increase of wealth, and an increase of activity in the prevention of smuggling, may have had very considerable effects, the former in increasing the consumption among the same number of people, and the latter in making the importation appear greater than in reality it has been. But making the utmost allowances for the effects of both, I have no doubt it will readily be admitted, especially by those who are acquainted with the circumstances of Ireland, that the increase in the importation of these articles amounts to a complete proof of, at least *half* as great an increase of the inhabitants of that country; and consequently that the actual period of doubling is much shorter than that which has been assumed.'

We have no doubt that a man who has *seen* all these *immense*, *prodigious*, *unprecedented*, *unparalleled*, and *amazing* operations, cannot but see a vast population, and wonder at his moderation in estimating the number of inhabitants at only 5,400,000. An increase of trade, manufactures, or of the consumption of particular articles, may indicate an increase of industry, wealth, and luxury; but can never be resorted to as any certain datum on the subject of population. Were the same rule of argument applied to England, the conclusion would be altogether ridiculous.

Notwithstanding this ample demonstration, however, we are furnished with an additional, new, and ingenious proof, in the next section; where *assuming* the thing to be already proved, that there are at present 900,000 houses in Ireland, inhabited by 5,400,000 people, we are told that there is more than enough of home-made and foreign spirits, tea, tobacco, and sugar consumed in Ireland to give to each individual a fair and reasonable proportion of these articles. How far the different classes of Irish may think themselves obliged to him for his allowance, we cannot pretend to say. We had different ideas, we confess, of Irish sobriety, and cannot forbear smiling at the grave calculations in the following passage,

which apply to 670,000 families, or above six sevenths of the whole population:

'Much has been said on the subject of the drunkenness of the inferior orders of the Irish; and under a persuasion of their peculiar and irresistible partiality to whiskey, it may be thought that a greater average allowance of that article should have been made for families inhabiting single-hearth houses.

'In large towns, where, by the way, the observations on the drunkenness of the Irish have generally been made, that fault is, no doubt, very prevalent among the common people. But in the country it is far otherwise. Except at fairs, *patrons*, wakes, and weddings, those who dwell in the single-hearth houses, such as agricultural labourers, cottier-tenants, small farmers, country artificers, and weavers, are scarcely ever seen intoxicated, and never use spirits at their meals. Now suppose that two persons out of each family went twenty times in the year to the places of meeting above-mentioned, and that they got drunk sixteen times out of the twenty; in such case the quantity of whiskey annually consumed by each family would be only two, instead of four gallons: half a pint of ardent spirits being sufficient to intoxicate most persons. Suppose again that one person in each family, on an average, drank a gill of whiskey every third day (a supposition, however, which no person of observation residing in Ireland will admit), the annual consumption of each family would still be less than four gallons. Besides it must be observed, that some part of the spirits which the lower class of people in Ireland drink, is given to them by those above them, for whom an ample allowance has been made. It is also to be observed, that the use of malt liquor, is every day becoming much more prevalent among them than formerly. Mr. Dubourdieu particularly notices this fact in his statistical survey of the county of Down; and most gentlemen in the province of Munster, especially in the county of Cork, will be ready to attest it. In that county, porter seems actually to be a favourite liquor among the lower orders. Twelve years ago, they seldom or never drank it.'

The whole argument in this section is hypothetical and inconclusive in the extreme.

In the fourteenth section, Mr. Newenham takes a view of the more apparent causes of the disparity in point of increase between the population of this country and Ireland. This comparative view, however, proceeds upon the supposition that a much greater disparity exists in this respect than we believe to be true. Mr. Newenham industriously takes the lowest computation he can find for Ireland at the beginning of the last century, that is to say, captain South's estimate; and the highest supposition that has been offered for England; making the population of Ireland at that period little more than one million, and that of England seven millions. If

captain South's estimate was taken from the poll-tax, in 1695, we have already observed that it must be extremely deficient, and far below the truth; and from the table formed upon the late returns of the registers of baptisms, burials, and marriages in this country, the population in England in 1700 does not appear to have been quite five millions and a half. By comparing captain South's estimate with the return of 1791, Mr. Newenham supposes the population of Ireland to have more than twice doubled in ninety-six years, while the increase in England is only supposed to be as 9 to 7.

By comparing, on the other hand, the return to the House of Lords, in 1731, with that in 1791, we find that the population in Ireland only doubled in sixty years; and by the results of the Population Act, the increase in England, during the last century, has been as 10 to 6. It still, however, must be allowed, that there is an apparent disparity, the subordinate causes of which, in England, our author supposes to be the establishment of manufactures unfavourable to health, the increase of luxury, and the consolidation of farms; but the great efficient causes he takes to be the less uniformly abundant supply of the sort of food on which the inferior classes of people have been accustomed to subsist, and the comparative infrequency of marriage. The latter circumstance he attributes to the operation of the Poor Laws, the tax on marriages, but chiefly to the characteristic difference in the modes of living. The labouring poor in Ireland, to induce them to enter into the marriage state, require only a mud cabin and a potatoe-garden. The wages of their labour they seldom receive in money, and think themselves in a highly thriving state when they can afford a pig or two, some poultry, a dog, and a cat, to help themselves, without ceremony, out of the same large dish, round which the family squat themselves to enjoy a hearty meal of milk and potatoes.

In the sixteenth section we have rather an interesting account of the numerical proportion of the Roman Catholics to the Protestants in Ireland. This proportion differs materially in different parts of the country. In many parishes the inhabitants are almost all Roman Catholics; in others the proportion is as high as 50 and 60 to 1; and in the three southern provinces of Leinster, Munster, and Connaught, taken together, the proportion is at least 9 to 1. Upon the whole, it seems certain, that making allowance for the greater number of Protestants to be found in the northern counties, the proportion of Roman Catholics to Protestants throughout Ireland exceeds 4 to 1. It appears also, that the Roman Catholic religion has, in fact, gained ground upon the Protestant. We shall make no comment at present on this part of the subject, though the

following remarks of the author might give rise to much observation.

'When a proscribed, or nearly tolerated religion greatly exceeds the established one, in point of numerical strength, the ordinary causes of the extension of the former will always be effectually aided by the concurrent operation of many others.

'That the Roman Catholic religion, under its present circumstances, will continue to gain ground on the Protestant religion, in Ireland, is, I think, indisputable. The increasing wealth of the country, it is true, annually raises up a considerable number of individuals, from the middle classes of the community, consisting at present, in the three provinces before-mentioned, chiefly of Roman Catholics, to the higher ones, consisting almost wholly of Protestants. But we find instances of conversion among the wealthy Roman Catholics, notwithstanding their association with Protestants, extremely rare. They look to the attainment of much greater political weight by adhering to, than by forsaking the religion of their ancestors. By the former they expect to stand among the leaders of a most powerful party; by the latter, they perceive that they must rely on their talents and good fortune alone for future political distinction.

'As for the lower orders of the Roman Catholics, not the slightest hope of converting them can now be entertained. Whatever ground the Roman Catholic has, in reality, gained upon the Protestant religion in Ireland, such ground, I have not the smallest doubt, will not merely be maintained, but enlarged, at least so long as the principal efficient causes of the extension of the former religion continue to operate.'

The concluding section is a species of Romance on the competency of Ireland to support a much greater population than it now contains; in which, after prophesying that in 1837 there will be found no less than 8,413,224 inhabitants, he proceeds with the utmost facility to the improvement of some millions of acres, leaving little uncultivated but what is barely necessary for lakes, rivers, and highways; and with the same ease and certainty raises above *twelve millions of tons of potatoes*, together with abundance of all other sorts of provisions, to afford sufficient and ample entertainment for his increasing multitudes. He at last winds up his speculations with the following peroration:

'A due consideration of the various facts which have been brought into view in the foregoing pages, cannot, it is presumed, fail to impress every reader with the vast and increasing importance of Ireland in the political scale of the British empire: and to excite in every good, loyal, and patriotic man, the utmost solicitude for the continuance of internal tranquillity in that country, manifestly qualified to furnish, in the greatest abundance, the

means of sustaining the power of the United Kingdom amidst the momentous changes which Europe seems likely to undergo.

'The recollection of recent events, accompanied by reflection on the nature and inveteracy of those principles of disunion, which have hitherto so frequently had the effects of blasting the growing prosperity of Ireland, and rendering it one of the most vulnerable parts of the British dominions, may create despondency in some. For my part, I think there are considerations which strongly tend to excite sensations of a very different nature.

'Surely Irishmen, of all sects, have sufficiently experienced the diversified mischiefs of religious animosity; and must languish for its utter and final extinction. Surely Irishmen, of all parties, have had sufficient reason to lament the calamitous effects of internal feuds and commotions. Surely Irishmen have no longer to learn that dark, foul, and treasonous conspiracies, confederacies, and alliances, not only involve individual ruin, but induce political imbecility, national poverty, humiliation, and subjection; and that industry, civilization, internal tranquillity, and alacrity in maintaining the authority of the laws, while they must necessarily be productive of the happy effects of drawing over a large proportion of British capital, ingenuity, and experience, and eventually giving additional and lucrative employment to thousands, are the *true and only means* whereby Ireland can attain that enviable pre-eminence which nature has qualified her to enjoy. Surely Irishmen are prepared to admit that although the late political system of their country did undoubtedly supply the means of rendering it conspicuous amongst the nations of Europe, yet that, under an equitable and well-cemented union, the sister islands cannot fail to experience the highest possible commercial and political advantages, mutually enriching, strengthening, and aggrandizing each other. Surely Irishmen must derive some consolation from the thought of their country's having become, after ages of political depression and turmoil, a prominent and most influential part of a vast empire, distinguished by an unprecedented combination of exalting circumstances; by great and increasing opulence, high martial renown, undisturbed internal repose, and perfect civil liberty, enjoyed by all ranks and descriptions of the community: an empire possessing the means of becoming irresistible; and much more likely to endure than any which has ever existed.

'Surely Irishmen must perceive that while, on the one hand, it is demonstrably inconsistent with the real welfare of their country to urge any factious, frivolous, unfounded, or unnecessary claim; it is, on the other, no less so with that of England, to withhold any benefit which Ireland may acquire a right to enjoy. Surely Irishmen may find grounds for being persuaded that the statesmen of the United Kingdom, sensible of the vast real importance of Ireland, will ever be disposed to investigate promptly, patiently, and minutely the grievances and claims of that country; to redress the former, if real, and admit the latter, if well founded, and notified in the temperate, cautious, steady, and becoming manner

which accords with the spirit of the British constitution, and corresponds to the dictates of political wisdom.'

As Englishmen, we *surely* and most cordially agree with our author in every sentiment dictated by a sincere regard for the general prosperity of the United Kingdom. We shall view, with the utmost pleasure, every improvement in the circumstances and conduct of Ireland which may entitle her to her due proportion of the glory and happiness of the empire at large, and shall at all times be happy to find Mr. Newenham attending more to limited practice than to extensive theory, in promoting these important and beneficial effects.

ART. VIII.—*An experimental Inquiry into the Nature and Propagation of Heat. By John Leslie.* 8vo. 14*s.* 1804. Mawman.

IT is not our intention to enumerate, in a prefatory discussion, the many difficulties that embarrass the subject of heat: nor to attempt the statement or the refutation of the opinions, some whimsical, many wild and merely conjectural, that have been promulgated concerning it. The present author, wisely and modestly, announces his inquiry to be experimental: and with his experiments is our chief concern. It is our intention to state them in their order and connexion, so that they may of themselves indicate the inferences to be made, and suggest the classification of the facts that are established.

The fact of the reflection of heat by concave speculums has been long known; but no philosopher, previously to Mr. Leslie, we believe, has examined the difference of the intensity of the reflected heat, as arising from the difference of substance and surface in the heated body; nor the difference of the intensity of the reflected heat as dependent on the nature of the reflecting speculum. This examination forms the first part; and, in our opinion, the chief merit of the present volume.

Small accessions of heat are, it is known, conveniently and sensibly indicated by an air thermometer; and the common instrument, now in use, would, perhaps, have been adequate in all the leading experiments narrated in the first part, to the purposes rendered by Mr. Leslie's *differential thermometer*. This instrument consists of a glass tube bent into the form of an U, the tops of the syphon being surmounted with bulbs; the tube contains coloured liquor, which, it is clear, all other things equal, would stand at equal heights in each branch. If, however, the air in one bulb is more heated than the air in the other bulb, an increase of elasticity, or of expansive force,

takes place, and the coloured liquor is forced to ascend in the opposite branch above the ordinary level. This instrument is ingeniously contrived, and is properly called a differential thermometer, since it indicates the difference of the respective or absorbing powers of heat, which different substances possess, such substances being made to envelope, or to adhere to, the bulbs.

The apparatus of Mr. Leslie consisted of the differential thermometer, of concave reflectors, and of cubical canisters, made of metal, glass, &c. Suppose now two canisters, one of metal, the other of glass, placed similarly at equal distances, between two equal reflectors, in the foci of which are placed the bulbs of differential thermometers. According to our author, the effects from metal and glass are, a and $a + b$, ($a = 12$, $b = 84 \pm$): nearly the same effects result, if the side opposed to the reflector be paper, or a thin coating of lamp-black. Hence a very remarkable, and to the generality of philosophic observers, an unlooked-for difference is manifest in one of the modes, by which vitreous and metallic substances disperse their heat.

Will any difference result if the focal ball of the thermometer be covered with tin foil? The effect on the thermometer, from the blackened side of the canister, instead of being 90 degrees, is 20, and from the bright side of the canister only 2½ degrees: hence, without the presumptuous propagation of any theory, it should seem that the receptive power as well as the propagative power of metal, is much less than that of glass or of paper. But if the receptive or absorbing powers are different in metal and glass, must not the reflecting powers be different? or, glass absorbing more heat than tin, less heat ought to be reflected on the focal ball from a glass reflector, than from a tin reflector. Experiment proves, that from a concave mirror the effect on the focal ball is very small: and the same, when the back of the mirror is freed from the silvering, or is made rough by the attrition of emery; but, let the face of the mirror be covered with tin foil, then the effect is ten times that which is produced by the naked mirror.

'The facts related in this chapter will be deemed at least very curious: and viewed all together, they are calculated, I think, to affect us with surprise. Nay, they are repugnant to our first notions, and might experience contradiction, if they were not so easily verified. We might admit, perhaps, without much hesitation, that blacking, and even paper, are, by their constitution, more receptive of heat than the bright surface of metal; but if this quality results from any particular affinity or superior attraction, how shall we conceive that those soft substances likewise discharge

heat the most copiously? The power of absorbing heat, and the power of emitting it, seem always conjoined in the same degree; and this uniform conjunction clearly betrays a common origin, and discovers the evolution of a single fact, which assumes contrary but correlative aspects. In the reflecting of heat also, we readily perceive that the very different aptitudes exhibited by different surfaces are derived from the same principle. That portion of heat only is reflected which has not been previously absorbed. Thus, a coat of china ink affords no reflection perceptible, because it is most absorbent of heat. A concave mirror occasions a small degree of reflection, for its disposition to absorb, though very considerable, is manifestly inferior to that of blacking; and a surface of tin, as it retains very little of the heat, produces a most powerful reflection.

'Whatever reasonings are employed concerning the operations of heat, the same must, with equal propriety, apply to those of cold. Do heat and cold constitute distinct elements, or are they only accidental and interchangeable qualities? Does heat act upon remote bodies, by the flow of some peculiar species of matter? And does cold exert its influence in a similar way, by the transmission of matter of an opposite kind? Or do not both of them produce their distant effects by the agency of the same individual fluid, susceptible, like all matter, of every possible degree of temperature?'

The author next made several experiments with screens interposed between the canisters and reflectors, and it is sufficient, without entering into details, to state the general result and inference: A screen, in the first instant, intercepted all heat flowing from the canister, and the effect on the thermometer took place only in consequence of the screen receiving heat and then emitting it: in fact the screen, with diminished energy, performs the part of a canister. It is easy to see, that with a given thickness the effect of the screen will principally depend on its absorbing and emitting powers, which, according to Mr. Leslie, are conjoined and correlative, and on its conducting power: its colour, and the asperity of its surface, will have some influence.

We ought not, however, in justice to the author, to pass over the experiment, which in our opinion is decisive, respecting screens, the nature and mode of their operation. Take two panes of crown glass, coat one side of each with tin foil: join the panes with their tin surfaces in contact, and interpose them thus joined, as a screen between the canister and thermometer: the thermometer indicates eighteen degrees of heat: invert the panes, so that the tin coatings are outermost, and the liquor of the differential thermometer sinks back to the beginning of the scale.

We have related only those experiments that are most

striking and simple: the treatise before us contains many more, contrived with skill and varied with ingenuity; they all establish similar results: under the influence of philosophic caution, we will not venture to say that a theory and system can be founded on them, but they point to a very simple and commodious classification of facts, from which we may predicate, under given circumstances, what will be the dispersion, or transmission, or reflection, of heat.

But our author makes no strange (we might say) meritorious deviation from the ancient custom of philosophers. He, too, has his system and theory; if true, certainly abstruse, and, what is worse, or what perhaps is the same thing, a theory neither perspicuously nor distinctly explained. As far as we are able to comprehend the meaning of the author, the dissipation or emission of heat from the sides of heated vessels, which heat is again collected on the bulb of the thermometer, depends on the undulatory power of the ambient air. By the vibrations of this elastic fluid, it is conveyed with great velocity: that the elasticity of the ambient medium is an operative circumstance in the reflection of heat, we have this proof, that when the apparatus of canister, thermometer, and reflector, is immersed into a trough of water, no effect takes place, or no heat is reflected. That, if conveyed by the agency of the air, it is conveyed with very great velocity, we have this proof; that if a strong blast be driven by means of bellows along the side of the heated canister when opposed to the reflector, no diminution takes place in the height of the coloured liquor contained in the thermometer. These are remarkable facts, and to be pondered on, in the formation of a theory. Through the intricacies of the author's theory, if *we* have obsequiously followed him, it is not our intention to conduct the reader. He must undertake the enterprize himself: by his own powers, he must struggle through the impediments of a thorny analysis, and force his way up the abrupt ascent, by the imperfect steps of a presumptuous hypothesis; yet his toil will be relieved and recompensed by the continual occurrence of varied illustration and profound remark.

The author, as a part of his system, labours to prove that heat is material; that heat and light are modifications of the same substance, and differing by the degree of velocity with which they are propagated; and to this difference of velocity he very ingeniously assigns the difference of the exactness with which heat and light are reflected. In light, as it is known, the angle of incidence is exactly equal to the angle of reflection; in the reflection of heat there is a small deviation from this equality. Heat is propagated from the hot body to

the reflector, and thence to the thermometer, by the pulsatory power of the air. The pulsatory power depends on its elasticity. Is there not then an obvious method of submitting this hypothesis to the test, by observing the effects of the dissipation of heat in rarefied air? The author, in fact, enables us to do this in his 21st chapter; he employs his instrument called the photometer, which we shall presently explain. The results it affords are sufficient for our present purpose. By several experiments the author collects that if D represents the density of the contiguous air, the discharge of heat from a vitreous surface will always be denoted by $\frac{1}{7}(3\,D\frac{1}{4} + 4\,D\frac{1}{10})$, and the discharge from a metallic surface, $\frac{1}{7}(3\,D\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\,D\frac{1}{10})$; it will be simpler to take specific numbers. In common air, calling its rarity or density 1, the expenditure of heat may be called 1: the expenditure has two sources: pulsation, that quality by which heat expended may again be concentrated by reflection; and abduction, a cooling process, which takes place in non-elastic as well as in elastic fluids: with the rarity 1 the pulsatory energy (as the author calls it), is .5714

the abductive power .4286

and when the rarities are expressed by

2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256,

the pulsatory and abductive powers are respectively represented by

5519, 5332, 5150, 4975, 4805, 4641, 4483, 4331,
3604, 3030, 2548, 2143, 1802, 1516, 1274, 1071,

and when the rarity is 1024 (2^{10}) the pulsatory and abductive powers are as much as 4041, and 758. Hence it appears, that the *ambient air*, by means of which heat is propagated by undulations and reflected, may be rarefied 256 times, whilst the pulsatory energy is reduced from 5714 to 4331 only; or loses out of 10,000 parts only 1383, and when rarefied 1024 times loses only 1673 parts out of 10,000. Is this only a remarkable fact, or is it an objection against the truth of Mr. Leslie's explanation?

If more heat is emitted (that portion of heat which can be collected by a spherical reflector into its focus) from earthen, glass vessels, from vessels covered with paper, pigment, &c. than from metallic vessels, then an obvious inference is, that the former vessels must cool faster than the latter: and such is the fact, although it is contrary to common opinion. Fill a metallic and an earthen vessel with hot water, then touching each, more heat is felt from the former than from the latter, because metal being a good conductor of heat, conveys readily the heat to the hand; and for this cause the metallic vessel *might* cool faster than the earthen one, were each

in contact with conducting substances. But place each vessel on non-conducting stands, then the cooling process is carried on more quickly in the glass than in the metallic vessel: because one agent in the cooling process is the pulsatory power of discharging heat, which is least in bright metallic surfaces; another agent in the process of refrigeration the author calls the abductive power; one source of refrigeration arises from the repeated contact and recession of particles; and a fourth from the ascent of heated and rarefied particles. This is the enumeration of the parts of the process according to the author, and on a subject so difficult, and we add, so exposed to doubt and controversy, we think it proper to give the author's own words.

'This completes the analysis of the refrigerating action of air. There are four distinct modes in which it produces the effect: three of these are always conjoined, and the fourth only throws in its occasional influence. They all conspire to the same end, but their relative shares of operation are various and mutable. One source of communication depends on the quality of the heated surface, another on its elevation of temperature, a third on the permanent conducting disposition of the air, and the last arises from the celerity of impulse by which that active fluid may chance to be affected. The continual ascent of the hot, and consequently rarefied, air, must contribute in some degree, though indirectly, to accelerate the effect; for it is evident, that the stagnation of a warm encircling atmosphere would debilitate the operation of the combined refrigerating causes.

'Having developed the separate influence of those several distinct yet associated operations, we are enabled now to determine their joint effect. The power which the air exerts in cooling a surface by the agency of its internal vibrations, and that which results from the ordinary process of the conducting of heat through the surrounding mass, are both of them constant, and may be included in the same estimate. But the refrigerating energy derived from the slow expansive recession of the heated molecules of air is continually decreasing, being proportioned simply to the excess of temperature. This expenditure of heat occasioned by the varying reiteration of aërial contact, is always inseparably conjoined, however, with that which is produced by the pulsation and diffusive absorption of the atmospheric mass. Their combined action will, therefore, be expressed by a constant quantity annexed to the declining measure of temperature. It was already noticed that the refrigerating power of the perpendicular flow of air, which corresponds to 30 degrees of heat, being as 1, the aggregate effect of the joint cooling processes at 10° centigrade is, on a metallic surface, as 2, and on a surface of paper, as 4. Consequently, with that excess, the whole refrigerating energy exerted by still air on a metallic surface will be denoted by 60, and on a surface of paper, by 120: at the limit of equilibrium, therefore,

the respective energies, being each diminished by 10, will be expressed by the numbers 50 and 110. Hence the rates of cooling that correspond in general to any height, h, of temperature are, for a surface of metal and one of paper, represented by $50 + h$ and $110 + h$.'

We have already noticed the differential thermometer; on a similar plan, and with some similarity in principle, the author has contrived an instrument called a photometer, by which, as the name denotes, the intensity of light is to be measured. A glass tube is bent into the form of a syphon, the two legs being horizontal and nearly in contact; the top of each leg is surmounted with a glass bulb, and one of the bulbs is rendered opaque; the liquor introduced into the tube is sulphuric acid, tinged with carmine. The instrument (for the particular description of which, and for its mode of construction, we refer to the work itself) acts on a principle, if true, not proved, but which Mr. Leslie has laboured to prove and render probable, by various arguments and illustrations; the principle is, that light and heat are only different states of the same identical substance; consequently (the consequence, however, is not absolute and strict), a double accession of light causes a double accession of heat, and a concomitant dilatation in the substance on which the heat acts; and reversely, a double accession of heat is an indication of a double accession of light: expose now the instrument to the action of light: the opaque bulb absorbs the light; the transparent affords it an easy passage; the air within the opaque bulb is heated, and its elasticity and expansive force increased, and consequently the coloured liquor is forced to ascend above the natural level in that branch of the syphon which is surmounted by the clear or transparent bulb.

Although wrapped up in our philosophic caution, and we may add, reasonable and proper distrust, we do not admit the principle on which the photometer is announced to measure the intensity of light; yet we think the principle probable (*vraisemblable*), and that, experimentally, it may be established. It is no difficult matter to conceive and contrive experiments, that may, when the photometer indicates an accession of light, indicate also an accession: the difficulty is, to contrive experiments that shall indicate an equal accession; or rather, the difficulty is, to contrive experiments from which it can be shewn or inferred, that one portion of light (with regard to its intensity) is double or treble of another portion.

In its practical application, however, the instrument is of considerable curiosity. In the elevated language of its author,

'The photometer exhibits distinctly the progress of illumination from the morning's dawn to the full vigour of noon, and thence its gradual decline, till evening has spread her sober mantle; it marks the growth of light from the winter solstice to the height of summer, and its subsequent decay through the dusky shades of autumn; and it enables us to compare, with numerical accuracy, the brightness of distant countries,—the brilliant sky of Italy, for instance, with the murky air of Holland.'

Many of the results afforded by the photometer are very curious: some contrary to common opinion. The quantity of indirect light reflected from the sky is very considerable: it is most powerful when the sky is overspread with thin fleecy clouds; and feeblest, either when the sky is of a pure azure tint, or when the rays are intercepted by thick vapours. Fogs and low mists do not cause a great diminution of light.

Substances, with regard to their degree of transparency, may be compared together by means of the photometer: out of 100 parts of the whole incident light, cambric admits 80, and when wetted 93: vellum transmits 49 parts, thin post 62, but soaked in olive oil, 86.

Artificial lights, it is evident, may be measured by means of the photometer: the author employed his instrument to measure the intensity of the lunar light: what he says on this subject deserves insertion.

'The light of the moon has the opposite character of excessive debility. The action of her rays on the photometer is quite imperceptible: nor could I render it visible, even by collecting them in the focus of a large burning glass. But I was enabled to form some estimate, by an indirect mode of comparison. I selected a small table of logarithms on which I could barely read the figures, by the light of the full moon: on retiring gradually backwards from a wax candle set to burn in a darkened room, I found the figures now become indistinct, beyond the distance of 15 feet. The force of the light received from the candle must have been only the 1350th part of a degree, for $\frac{1}{6} \times (\frac{1}{15})^2 = \frac{1}{6 \times 225} = \frac{1}{1350}$; and consequently if the flame had been contracted to the same apparent magnitude as the moon, this measure would have been diminished still 16 times more, and hence reduced to the 21,600th part of a degree. But the illuminating power of the sun, at the same altitude, is 70 degrees, and therefore exceeds that of the moon, in the ratio of 70 × 21,600 to 1; or, in round numbers, it is *one hundred and fifty thousand times* greater.

'This estimate is double what has been assigned by the celebrated Bouguer; and my respect for the conclusions of that able observer has induced me, where the limit was dubious, to lean more to the side of defect than of excess. If I have erred therefore, I presume it is in representing the lunar illumination rather too small than too large. But neither of these computations will agree with the cur-

rent opinion, that the moon derives her light merely from the sun. In fact, if the moon reflected and dispersed in every direction the whole of the light which she receives from the sun, it would, before it reached us, be spread over the concavity of a sphere equal to the lunar orbit. But this orbit having its diameter about 224 times that of the moon, and the surface of a sphere being equal to four of its great circles; the secondary light which would reach the earth must be attenuated not less than *two hundred thousand times*, for $4\ (224)^2 = 200{,}704$. Such perfect reflection, however, cannot be admitted. If we examine the face of the moon with a good telescope, we discern round spots of extraordinary brightness, and perceive large spaces which are remarkably obscure. It it evident then, that but a very small part of the incident light must be reflected, the rest being absorbed. The quantity of reflection from paper, plaster, and other white rough surfaces, according to Bouguer himself, constitutes only the 150th part of the whole incidence. If the exterior crust of the moon resembled, therefore, any earthy body with which we are acquainted, her pale borrowed light would be at least one hundred times feebler than is actually observed. Hence I am disposed to think, that the rays of the moon are principally, if not entirely, discharged from her own mass, and that the lunar surface is of a nature analogous to the carbonate of barytes and other phosphorescent substances, which, after a partial calcination, are capable of being excited by the action of the solar rays to disengage their latent light.' P. 451.

In our examination of the facts and reasonings contained in the present volume, we have not paid much attention to the order in which the author himself has arranged them: we have stated, what appear to us, the most remarkable facts and prominent parts of Mr. Leslie's theory. The arrangement, if his book live in a second edition, and it ought to live, the author himself may be induced to alter: we hope too that retrenchments may be made, and that certain evagations and excursions, cognizable and punishable by the law of criticism, will hereafter be restrained: what proceeding, indeed, can be more lawless than what appears in the eighth chapter? After a simple and well arranged narration of experiments, extremely curious and novel, the author bursts, as it were, from the thraldom of fact and detail, to expatiate in the unknown regions of speculation. He takes the compass and balance into his hand, and proceeds to portion and mete out the universe. After the example of some ancient philosophers, on the principle of simplicity, he insinuates, that all that we see, taste, and handle, are only different modifications of the same substance: the peculiar properties of bodies, he says, must result merely from the different arrangement and configuration of their integrant parts. If a person denies this, or requires the proof of it, what will become of our author and his *must?* Again he says, 'Many plants are

fed by water and air alone; and in general the soil performs only a secondary and subordinate office. Those fluids, therefore, which were once esteemed elements, are capable of being transformed into all the diversified products of the animal kingdom; into charcoal, earths, salts, gums; nay, the oxid of iron, and *perhaps* those of other metals: still more varied are the animal products.' Now what is the inference from this argumentation which does not consist of ten lines? This, '*In short we cannot reasonably doubt that every substance is convertible into every other.*' Is this logical reasoning? Is this with the care and caution of inductive philosophy?

We extract another passage from his extraordinary philosophical creed.

'All bodies, thus, consist of physical points, endued with certain powers, attractive or repulsive, which repeatedly interchange and vary their intensity with the distance, according to some uniform and permanent law. This universal law of action, constitutes the essence of matter; it is original, absolute, and underived; and the numerous properties of corporeal substances, with all their apparent diversity, are only the several results or developements of the same grand principle. Could we discover the equation of the primordial curve in its whole extent, we might thence unfold the internal structure of bodies, deduce their respective qualities, and estimate the effects of chemical agency, with the same rigorous accuracy as we now calculate the planetary motions. It were too sanguine, however, to expect that science will ever make such mighty advances. The initial part of the curve of action must evidently be more intricate than its remote branch, and we are, besides, precluded almost totally from the means of ascertaining its nature. The microscopic world seems to retire from human research, and to conceal itself in impenetrable obscurity. On a subject so very recondite, we shall probably, for ages, have only vague and inadequate ideas.'

P. 124.

Our author intersperses and variegates the abstruseness of his matter with interesting remarks and illustrations: he has thrown much valuable matter, sometimes supplemental to the matter in the text, and sometimes not of the same nature and fashion, into the notes. The 16th note on necessary connexion, and on the derivation and primary meanings of words implying causation, is very ably drawn up. We are puzzled to reconcile the very sober, strict, and logical discussions of the author with some of his fanciful excursions; but he knows so well what is right and legal in reasoning and philosophy, that we consider his evagations rather as those of an outlaw than of a savage.

To the aid and developement of his theory, Mr. Leslie

has called in the succour of mathematics; and he has ably availed himself of such succour. In questions essentially involving fluxions or the differential calculus, he adopts the notation of the latter, and, in his own words, we subjoin the reasons of such adoption.

'The scientific reader will perceive, that I have uniformly employed the method of notation which prevails on the continent. In countenancing this innovation, I have not been actuated by an undue predilection for what is foreign, but have adopted it after some experience and mature reflection. Though we dispute with Germany the priority of invention, it must be confessed that the higher calculus was never much cultivated in England. For more than half a century back, we have allowed it to remain almost stationary. And what a vast interval in the career of discovery between Cotes and Lagrange! The mathematicians of the continent have indeed left us so far behind them, that their language and symbols appear at first scarcely intelligible. Our system of notation has remained in the same imperfect state; and unfortunately its narrow basis precludes the possibility of any material improvement. After some hesitation, we have almost universally adopted the nomenclature, though yet imperfect, which is engrafted upon the pneumatic chemistry. And why should we scruple any longer to embrace the consistent and extensive notation appropriated on the continent to the higher calculus? There are manifest indications that this most important study is likely to be revived among us, and prosecuted with ardour. And guided by the correct taste derived from our acquaintance with the ancients, we may hope to transfuse into the vast structure of analysis that elegance and luminous connexion which the philosophers abroad have but too much disregarded.' P. 551.

Our aim has been to state the most interesting results of the work before us, and to make plain the general scope of the author's reasonings. We hope we have said enough to incite to its perusal. As for our animadversions, delivered, we trust, without asperity, they do not affect with disrepute the general character of the treatise: we view with pleasure its excellences and bright parts; but whatever are the merits of a work, they shall never cause us to palliate or to conceal its defects. The errors of illustrious authors are the proper quarry of critics: it is a foolish waste of time to trouble the public with the grievous errors of petty books. Had Mr. Leslie been less ingenious, less original, less interesting, he might have escaped both our censure and approbation.

ART. IX.—*A Poem on the Restoration of Learning in the East, which obtained Mr. Buchanan's Prize. By Charles Grant, Esq. M. A. Fellow of Magdalen College, Cambridge.* 4*to.* 3*s.* Cadell. 1805.

IT will be right to inform the public that the Rev. Claudius Buchanan, vice provost of the college of Fort William in Bengal, lately proposed with great liberality several donations to the universities and principal great schools, as rewards for compositions in different languages, in prose and verse. The present poem gained one of his prizes.

The idea of *poetry* is so widely disjoined in our minds from the idea of *a task*, that we cannot even contemplate a copy of verses on a set subject without some degree of prejudice. We confess, however, that we have been agreeably disappointed in that which is now before us. It is, on the whole, a very fine composition; and we pay it a compliment infinitely beneath its deserts, when we assert it to have much more merit than we have any right to expect in a prize poem.

The subject naturally embraces three periods in the history of Oriental learning: its early greatness; its downfall; and its restoration. In taking a view of these, the author has broken the historic series of events, by beginning with a survey of the intermediate barbarism, or what may be called *the middle ages* of Hindostan; from which he reverts to her pristine arts and sciences, and then descends to hail their revival under the auspices of the English. This derangement of the order of time is well-judged and happy.

The feelings of most English readers are so little in communion with Oriental allusions, Oriental characters, and Oriental history, that they are naturally shocked by an abrupt introduction to scenes and images of which they have, at the best, such scanty knowledge. The seas and deserts which separate us from India, cannot be crossed without some little preparation and ceremony. In this view the poem before us will, we are persuaded, be generally thought defective. Mr. Grant takes no pains, at his outset, to tune our minds to that new species of poetic harmony which is furnished by the splendid imagery, the swelling appellatives, and the gorgeous mythology, of the East. 'Brooking no delay of preface,' he hurries us at once from our well-known and humble streams to the banks of the Ganges and the Jumna. The consequence is, that we are affected, in the first instance, with rather more wonder than is consistent, according to metaphysicians, with the sensation of delight.

Lest this censure should be misunderstood, we shall just re-

mark that it is directed not against the use, but against the *premature* use, of what may be called Orientalisms, in this poem. A lazy or an ignorant reader may possibly extend the objection to the whole composition, and complain that it is too thickly 'sown with a jangling noise of words unknown.' But in fact a redolence of Indian allusions is one of the chief beauties of the poem, because it is exactly in character with the subject; nor, indeed, could it have been avoided, without something like a violation of costume.

The author, at the beginning of his poem, describes the irruptions of those conquerors of India who destroyed her colleges and her learning no less than her cities and her independence. Aurengzebe is reprobated in a passage containing some very poetical couplets; then Nadir Shah rushes upon our notice, clad in all his guilty splendour. The transition from the first of these conquerors to the second, must be allowed the praise of considerable address; and the route of Nadir is sketched in lines which would atone for a hundred faults. The lines shall hereafter be extracted, for the amusement of our readers; and in the mean time we will give the passage that closes the first division of our author's subject. The whole is pleasing; and the last couplet but one, uncommonly beautiful.

> 'No more to awful thought the soul aspires,
> But grief extinguishes the muse's fires:
> No more while all her listening groves rejoice,
> Enraptur'd Wisdom lifts th' instructing voice;
> Nor Knowledge gives her philosophic eye,
> To read the blazing wonders of the sky;
> Unmark'd the stars of morn or evening glow,
> And suns unnoticed arch the showery bow:
> A dumb despair weighs down the arts sublime,
> And taste and genius fly the sadden'd clime.'

Some objections may, doubtless, be made to the conduct of the first part of this poem; but the conduct of the second and third parts we willingly own to be not only without positive faults, but often extremely happy. The transition from the ancient and 'palmy state' of learning in India, to its revival under English patronage, required no common delicacy; because, as the way was necessarily through the intermediate darkness deplored in the beginning of the poem, the author was in imminent danger of palling his readers with offensive repetitions. From this strait, however, he has extricated himself with great dexterity. He casts an easy retrospective glance at the devastations before detailed; and then fills up the interval between the two periods of time in question, with some moral reflections conveyed in admirable poetry.

It is hardly necessary to observe, that in a poem of which the subject does not immediately touch the feelings of common readers, a great portion of the writer's attention and skill should be expended on the conduct of his episodes; or, to employ a more usual, and perhaps an unfortunate word, his digressions. We say an *unfortunate* word; because we are persuaded that the use of this word has led to some misconceptions, by giving rise to the idea that the introduction of extraneous topics into a poetic composition is rather a licence which may be forgiven, than a duty which must be discharged. We talk, for instance, of *pardoning* Milton's digressive address to light, and Virgil's digressive rhapsody on the death of Cæsar, on account of the beauties displayed in both these immortal episodes. In all this language, we suspect, there is a great deal of the cant of criticism. Whatever universally pleases the great multitude of literary readers, is, we may rely upon it, not only beautiful, but strictly proper, and exactly in its right place; because, from the taste of this assembly there lies no appeal to the Bossus and the La Mottes, nor even to Aristotle and Longinus. Poetry is, in effect, a system of digressions; that is, it rejoices in very loose and general associations: and one part of the pleasure both of composing and of reading it, may probably be resolved into the delight which the mind derives from the contemplation and exercise of its own elective power, in choosing out remote analogies, and connecting together things apparently unconnected.

We congratulate our author on his skill in the department of which we have been speaking. The variety of the topics he has introduced, and of the styles he has employed, bespeaks a mind not only richly furnished, but also of great versatility, and possessing much command over its acquired stores. The general aspect of the poem is rather lofty than pathetic: yet occasional strokes of much pathos occur; and one entire episode of the pathetic kind, which we shall shortly extract, is exquisitely beautiful. Perhaps, however, the parts in which Mr. Grant most excels, are those in which he explains moral or metaphysical truths. His ethical principles are developed with force and dignity, and he has conducted some very abstruse reasonings in a very luminous manner. The versification, though in several instances it betrays striking marks of carelessness, is in general rich, strong, and sonorous.

To justify the liberal commendation which we have bestowed on this poem, we shall submit an extract of some magnitude to our readers. Perhaps it is not altogether the best portion of the same length which might have been selected; but it contains some passages of singular merit, and from the variety of

its style, seems most eligible as a section of the whole fabric. After celebrating the Augustan era of Hindû literature (which, it seems, must be placed about half a century before Christ, and of which the chief ornament was the famous tragedian Calidasa), the poet breaks out into the following apostrophe:

'Hail happy years! when every lyre was strung,
And every clime with mirth and music rung:
While Asia's voice her Calidasa blest
Hark! kindred spirits answer'd from the west.
There all his lofty tones Lucretius gave,
And epic transports burst on Mincio's wave,
While rov'd the Matin bee o'er sweetest flow'rs
And all Hymettus bloom'd in Tibur's bowers.
Oh, could some god have rent the veil away,
And join'd in one the masters of the lay!
Illustrious names! tho' breath'd the mutual tone
In distant climes, unknowing and unknown,
Yet haply, by a viewless touch impell'd,
Your choral symphonies responsive swell'd,
And some spher'd seraph, with the song beguil'd,
Lean'd from his rolling orb to hear, and smil'd.
How swift, O India, fled those happy years!
How soon thy palmy glories sunk in tears!
What muse, unwarm'd, their early bloom can eye,
Or sing their altered fates without a sigh?
Such thy sad trophies, war! by thee dismay'd,
The classic graces fly their cherish'd shade;
Peace still they love, the moonlight hour serene,
Th' unwitness'd musings of some tranquil scene;
Where all is calm and joy, within, around,
No care to ruffle, and no grief to wound.
Oft their bright train, ere yet the war arise,
E'en from its distant rumour shrinks and flies:
So, ere it touch the steel, the solar ray
Plays off from the keen edge, and glides away.
But not alone the trumpet's madding roar
Expell'd the weeping arts from Ganges' shore;
Lo! nurs'd in superstition's gloomy bower,
Vice wings with added speed the fatal hour;
Thick and more thick her blighting breath she sheds,
And learning sickens as the mildew spreads.
For still this sovereign principle we find,
True in the individual as the kind;
Strong links and mutual sympathies connect
The moral powers and powers of intellect;
Still these on those depend by union fine,
Bloom as they bloom, and as they fade decline.
Talents, 'tis true, gay, quick, and bright, has God
To virtue oft denied, on vice bestowed;

Just as fond nature lovelier colours brings
To paint the insect's than the eagle's wings.
But of our souls the high-born loftier part,
Th' etherial energies that touch the heart,
Conceptions ardent, labouring thought intense,
Creative fancy's wild magnificence,
And all the dread sublimities of song,
These, virtue, these to thee alone belong;
These are celestial all, nor kindred hold
With aught of sordid or debasing mould:
Chill'd by the breath of vice, their radiance dies,
And brightest burns when lighted at the skies,
Like vestal flames, to purest bosoms given,
And kindled only by a ray from heaven.
'But lo! once more return the happy hours;
Learning revisits her forsaken bowers.
To greet her loved approach, her chosen band
In joyful ranks unites on Ganges' strand.
'Twas thus of old when swell'd the rushing Nile
From Nubian hills or Meroes sun burnt isle,
At once, with all her priests, an awful train,
Transported Memphis issued on the plain;
The white-robed pontiff watch'd the sinking vale,
And waved his wand, and bade Osiris hail.
Not with less rapture learning's votaries burn
And court her steps, and bless her glad return.
Full in their front with eye that upward soars
Apart the mighty Hierophant adores,
Accomplish'd Jones!'

Our readers, we believe, will agree with us in thinking that the reflections in the above passage on the contemporary poets of India and Rome, discover genius, and a considerable command of poetic diction. The simile of the Nile is extremely fine.—But we are most delighted with the moral strains that immediately precede it. Without any of the mannerism of servile imitation, they remind us of the ethical poetry of Pope, as strongly as any verses that have been written since the death of that poet. This is, indeed, a compliment of great extent; for we know that Johnson and Goldsmith have moralized in verse.

The character of sir William Jones, which succeeds the passage just quoted, we have not extracted, because, though most of the lines are individually good, and some excellent, yet the whole paragraph is languid, and has a heavy effect. We shall, therefore, indulge ourselves in transcribing the following very pathetic effusion, to which we have already alluded. It is only necessary to premise, that it follows a description of the members of the Asiatic Society.

'Nor these alone: but lo! as Wellesley leads,
Rise other names, and a new race succeeds.
Rous'd by his call, the youthful bands aspire
To Jones's learning or to Jones's fire;
In clust'ring ranks the meed of song they claim,
And toil and brighten up the steep of fame.
Thou too, had heaven but listen'd to our prayer,
Thou too, Mackenzie,* shouldst have brightened there.
Oh, hopes dissolv'd, oh, prospects all decay'd!
Oh, dawn of glory opening but to fade!
Pleas'd we beheld thy early laurels bloom,
Nor knew they wove a trophy for thy tomb.
By Hoogley's banks, from kindred dust how far!
On thy cold stone looks down the eastern star.
But still affection views thy ashes near,
The mould is precious and that stone is dear:
Her nightly thought surmounts the roaring wave,
And weeps and watches round thy distant grave.
Yet say, why on that dark eventful day,
That call'd thee from the shores of Thames away,
When friendship's warmth mid parting sorrows burn'd,
Hand press'd in hand, and tear for tear return'd;
Though hope was there all credulous and young,
Why on thy brow a cheerless shadow hung?
E'en at that hour did dark forebodings shed
O'er shivering nature some unconscious dread?
And felt thy heart new wounds of sadness flow,
Prophetic sadness and a weight of woe?
'How dark though fleeting are the days of man?
What countless sorrows crowd his narrow span!
For what is life? a groan, a breath, a sigh,
A bitter tear, a drop of misery,
A lamp just dying in sepulchral gloom,
A voice of anguish from the lonely tomb.
Or wept or weeping all the change we know;
'Tis all our mournful history below.
Pleasure is grief but smiling to destroy,
And what is sorrow but the ghost of joy?
Oh haste that hour, whose rustling wings shall play
To warn the shades of guilt and grief away.'

A specimen of the author's talent in metaphysical reasoning shall next be subjoined. Every oriental scholar is aware that many of the old Hindû philosophers were strenuous advocates of what (as Mr. Grant justly observes) is improperly

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'* Lewis Mackenzie, Esq. of the Bengal civil establishment. He died at Calcutta in 1800, just after he had been honoured with a medal for his proficiency in the college lately established there. He was the son of Mr. Mackenzie, the celebrated author of The Man of Feeling.'

called the immaterial system. Of this school the leading tenet is, that all matter exists only as it is perceived by the mind of the Supreme Being, and that it exists to us only as it is made perceptible to our minds by his agency. This grand but very subtle doctrine it is not easy to express in poetic language, and still more difficult to explain and discuss.

Mr. Grant, however, developes it very perspicuously in a fine speech which he puts into the mouth of the celebrated Indian poet and philosopher Vyasa; and then proceeds to reason, with great acumen and clearness, on the probable origin of such a doctrine in a country devoted to polytheism. We should be happy to transcribe both the speech and the reasoning; but we have not room for both; and, though the former contains some poetry of a very high order, we prefer citing the latter, because, taken in conjunction with the extracts already made, it best exemplifies the versatility of our author's poetic powers. This paragraph (and what more can be said of it?) is truly Lucretian.

'Yet whence this progress of the sage's mind,
Beyond the bounds by nature's hand assign'd?
Whence, every form of vulgar sense o'erthrown,
Soars the rapt thought, and rests on God alone?
'Perhaps by smooth gradations to this end
All systems of belief unconscious tend;
That teach the infinite of nature swarms
With gods subordinate through endless forms,
And every object, useful, bright, malign,
Of some peculiar is the case or shrine.*
Ask the poor Hindoo if material things
Exist: he answers, Their existence springs
From mind within, that prompts, protects, provides,
And moulds their beauties, or their terrors guides.
Blooms the red flow'ret? Durva† blushes there.
Flash lightnings fierce? dread Indra‡ fills the air.
The morning wakes, or high the white wave swells;
That Surya§ brightens, Ganga‖ this impels.
Thus in each part of this material scene,
He owns that matter leans on mind unseen;
And in each object views some God pourtrayed,
This all in all, and that but empty shade;

* 'The author has here ventured to propose a conjecture respecting the possible origin of (what is commonly, though inaccurately, termed) the immaterial philosophy, from the principles of polytheism.'

† 'Durva is the most beautiful species of grass, and supposed to be the residence of a nymph of the same name. Its flowers, says sir William Jones, seen through a lens, are like minute rubies.'

‡ 'The God of the firmament.'

§ 'The Deity of the sun.'

‖ 'Ganga is the goddess of the Ganges, who sprung like Pallas from the head of the Indian Jove.'

The mind extinct its shadows too must flee
And all the visible forget to be.
But when the sage is taught these gods to deem
The powers personified of one Supreme,
He not destroys their functions, but transfers,
Their titles changes, not their characters,
Content, for many, one great cause t' adore,
He now terms attributes, what gods before,
Yet still untouched that principle retains,
Mind ever present in all matter reigns;
His creed the same whate'er that mind he call,
In each imprison'd or diffus'd through all.
Still of this whole each portion every hour
Asks instant energies of local power.
If in himself the infinite comprise
The varying powers of countless deities;
Say should not he, with equal ease as they,
Through objects numberless those powers display?'

We cannot here refrain from expressing our astonishment at the coincidence between the theories of Berkeley, and the doctrines promulgated nearly three thousand years ago, by the Vedanti philosophers of India. This coincidence, if we rightly understand the Vedanti system, is minutely exact. At first, indeed, one slight feature of distinction occurred to us. The system of ideal perceptions was by the Hindû sages termed *maya*, which signifies *delusion;* and agreeably to this notion, Vyasa, in the poem before us, exclaims, 'Tis all delusion.' Berkeley, on the contrary, sturdily maintains the reality of sensible objects, and asserts the conformity of his own opinion on this point with that of the vulgar; from which it would follow that the vulgar are under no 'delusion' whatever. Probably, however, it will be found on examination, that this distinction between the dogmas of the Vedanti and the Berkeleians, is merely verbal. Much of what Berkeley has said on this subject in his famous dialogue, seems, after all, to be mere quibbling on the word 'real.' It is difficult to discover what he understands by 'the *reality* of sensible things,' unless he intends to affirm that certain impressions are really made on the human senses; and if he affirms only this, he affirms an identical proposition. At all events, few will now deny that the vulgar are firm materialists; that they have actually a belief in a material substance, without pretending to define it; and that (to adopt Berkeley's own illustration) they would rather be apt to say, 'There is a God; he perceives all things:' than to say, 'Sensible things exist; there must be a supreme mind in which they exist.'*

* See the second dialogue between Hylas and Philonous.

Notwithstanding the length of the extracts which we have already made, we shall beg leave to add one more; which in style, though not in merit, stands aloof from them all. It is the sketch of the march of Nadir Shah. The sound of that conqueror's voice is described as echoing successively through various realms; and under this fiction the actual route of his conquests is accurately, and at the same time very poetically, delineated.

'Hark 'tis a voice on Meshed's* holy walls
His fierce Afshars† impetuous Nadir calls:
From Gebal's mountains whose rude summits shade
Nohavend's‡ dark and melancholy glade;
From fragrant Rersis gemm'd with orient flowers;
From Seistan's mines of gold and palmy bowers;
From thirsty Kerman, and Balsara's strand,
Where Susa's lawns to western suns expand,
Swells the disastrous sound to Media's vales,
Where health on Tabrin § breathes with all her gales,
To wild Araxes' yet untam'd career,
And Teflis to the nymphs of Georgia dear.
Thy sons, Shirvaim, have heard on Bacu's shore,
And Derbend's ‖ iron barrier frowns no more;
While the proud Russ ¶ on Neva's banks aghast,
Starts at the echoes of the distant blast.
Back the dread echoes roll through climes of day;
Kings shrink to dust and armies fade away.
High Candahar on eastern ramparts bold,
Imperial Gazni seat of monarchs old,
Cower at the peal; astonish'd Cabul yields,
Lahore** recoils through all her floating fields.
Ah! be the shadows deep on Karnal's †† meads:
There, there the tow'ring pride of Delhi bleeds.'

The author possibly caught the leading idea of these lines from a fact recorded by the biographers of Nadir—that the

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* 'Meshed means the tomb of martyrs. It is the capital of Khorasan, and was the city from which Nadir first went forth to conquest by his own authority, and which he made the principal seat of government.'

† 'Afshars, the tribe to which Nadir belonged.'

‡ 'Nohavend, the scene of the last decisive battle, which lasted for three days, between the Persians and Arabs, and terminated the empire of the former in the seventh century.'

§ 'Tabrin or Tauris, remarkable for the purity of its air. Its name imports that it can never be infected by any contagious disorder.'

‖ 'The ancient Caspiæ Portæ, called by the Turks the *gate of iron*.'

¶ 'The Russians sent an embassy to Nadir.'

** 'Lahore is watered by the five branches of the Indus, and is thence called Panjab.'

†† 'Karnal thirty leagues from Delhi. Here was fought the decisive battle between Nadir and Mahommed the Mogul emperor.'

voice of this tyrant was remarkable for its strength and clearness. If this conjecture be just, we have here an example of the account to which poets can turn the most trivial circumstances.

To bring up the rear of this article, we had prepared a catalogue, and not a very short one, of the minor defects with which this poem is chargeable; such as feeble passages, harsh or prosaic lines, and inanimate expressions. But on second thoughts, and especially considering the length of the preceding observations, we abandon them all, and cheerfully trust the discovery of them to an author who has manifestly too much taste and genius to offend often, except through haste or inattention. Our opinion of the poem in spite of its faults, the reader already knows. While we are sickened at the noise of the misbegotten brood that cackle at the foot of Parnassus, we contemplate with genuine pleasure even the desultory flight of a muse of fire. While so many candidates for the laurel are seduced, by the silly vanity of founding a new school, to mistake singularity for eminence, we applaud the poet who is content to cultivate the grand style, of which our great masters have bequeathed to us such noble models. While an inordinate rage for blank verse and descriptive poetry misleads not a few writers of real ability, we listen with fondness to the strain that revives in our minds the cherished memory of the greatest of our poetic moralists. Yet we must add that this poem, excellent as it is, gives no ambiguous promise of something still more distinguished; and we therefore recommend to the author the assiduous cultivation of his talents.

The notes which accompany this composition, are simple and satisfactory. Both in these and in the text, the author discovers much (and, as far as we are judges, accurate) information on Oriental subjects. One slight error we detected in page 10, which cannot, we fear, be corrected, without spoiling a very sounding distich. Bheem is classed among the Kooroos; whereas, if we are not mistaken, this hero, who was the elder brother of Arjun, sided with the Pandoos. It is also perhaps a fault, that in his mode of spelling Asiatic words, Mr. Grant has not adhered to a fixed standard; but sometimes follows the system of sir William Jones, and sometimes that of Mr. Wilkins.

We cannot take our leave of this author, without expressing our concurrence in the noble sentiments that give a double grandeur to the animated and majestic strains with which he concludes. How long shall we suffer millions of our fellow-subjects in the East to languish under the pressure of the most lamentable ignorance and superstition? When shall it cease to be a question, whether Europe has most benefited or injured Asia?

ART. X.—*A Dissertation on Gout; exhibiting a new View of the Origin, Nature, Cause, Cure, and Prevention of that afflicting Disease; illustrated and confirmed by a variety of original and communicated Cases. By Robert Kinglake, M. D. &c. Physician at Taunton.* 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.* Murray. 1804.

KNOWING the nature of the remedy which Dr. Kinglake recommends for this 'afflicting disease,' we were much disposed to listen to his observations, and anticipated considerable advantage from a perusal of his book. Our imagination was roused by the prospect of curing a disease, which our present treatment barely palliates, and of substituting an active remedy, upon judicious and philosophical principles, for an unvarying and feeble empiricism. We expected to find a rational investigation of the errors of our great predecessors, who prescribed the practice which we employ; or a satisfactory evidence, from induction, that circumstances often render it safe and advantageous to deviate from it, and that these circumstances may be readily pointed out. But we have been greatly disappointed. The author seems to be little addicted to accuracy of observation, or precision in his ideas. He appears to have forgotten, that a few careless experiments do not constitute the groundwork of a rational induction; that the evidence of long-established experience is strong, and not to be overthrown but by a counter-evidence, deduced from an ample series of facts, ascertained with due accuracy; and that, on experimental subjects, declamation has little influence on our opinions.

The history of Dr. Kinglake's enquiry is briefly this. He first conceives an hypothesis, in contempt of general experience, or general opinion, which stands in direct contradiction to it. He next proceeds to put his hypothesis to the test of experiment, without any discrimination of circumstances, which not only experience would suggest, but which every principle of philosophical investigation demands. Meeting with success in five or six cases, he immediately sends them forth in a public journal, without caution or limitation, requesting that his brethren will adopt his plan of cure, and inform him of the result: and having collected some evidence in its favour, in which an equal inattention to circumstances appears, he publishes this systematic treatise, which is said to exhibit all the *new views* expressed in the title-page.

Unphilosophically and carelessly as this enquiry seems to have been conducted, the doctor already exclaims, with a pompous confidence, becoming a great discoverer:

'Exegi monumentum—
Quod non imber edax, non Aquilo impotens
Possit diruere, aut innumerabilis
Annorum series, et fuga temporum.

'Whatever may be the fate of my reasoning in public estimation, the facts which have resulted from it will, in permanency, class with the physical elements of nature, will endure as long as the present economy of the universe, and when the author and his commentators shall have immemorially passed away, in the mighty wreck of decomposing substances!' P. 9.

Whether this sonorous climax belongs to the sublime or the bathos, let the Scribleri of the day determine: whether it is the assurance of vanity and imbecility, or the confidence of genius, we do not feel it necessary to enquire.

The purport of the author's dissertation is to establish the following positions: a brief analysis of his reasoning will evince how far he has succeeded in his design. He maintains 'that gout differs in no essential circumstance from common inflammation; that it is not a constitutional but merely a local affection; that its genuine seat is exclusively in the ligamentous and tendinous structure; that its attack is never salutary; that it should neither be encouraged nor protracted; and that, if seasonably and appropriately treated, it is as easily remediable as inflammatory excitement on the muscular, cuticular, or any other description of organic texture.' P. 7.

The first chapter, which professes to treat of the 'origin of gout,' contains not one word upon the subject, except a conjecture that it 'must have been nearly coeval with that of human existence,' because its causes must have existed in the earliest times. But had he dated its origin from the first manufacture of spirituous or fermented liquors, the *view*, though it would have been less new, would have been more distinct, and, we apprehend, more correct.

Gout, we are next informed, is not a constitutional, but merely a local affection; and it consists of simple inflammation, modified by the structure of the parts in which it is seated.

'Idiopathic, or true gout, or rather that inflammatory affection of the joints, which popular consent has denoted by that name, has its station exclusively in the ligamentous and tendinous structure. The dense compactness of this fabric gives to its nervous, vascular, and cellular substances, sentient, irritative, and resisting powers, peculiarly adapted to induce the painful conflict sustained, when, from any cause, these parts are subjected to inflammatory violence. Strong derivant excitement, impulsive afflux of fluids, and unyielding contractility of vessels, are sufficient to furnish the most distressful phenomena of gout.

'If this disease, then, has for its seat organic texture, that im-

parts to it a specific modification, it is obvious that a different arrangement of parts must be incapable of affording precisely similar effects; and that consequently where this structure does not *present*, whatever be the morbid excitement, the formality of gout cannot be strictly recognised.' P. 9.

This affected jargon, which is more intelligible than the greater part of the author's *sesquipedalian* phraseology, contains the sum of the argument against the established belief that the disease is constitutional: and it is repeated again and again as an answer to every objection that suggests itself. But it is obvious that he deludes himself with words; that he founds his theory upon a mere assumption, from which he reasons in a circle; and that his concluding position is equally gratuitous with the original assumption, being in fact but a repetition of it in other terms. His argument may be stated thus: 'gout is exclusively confined to tendinous, which is local structure; *ergo* gout is not constitutional.' Or: 'gout is not constitutional, *because* it is merely local.' Excellent logician!

Perhaps this specimen is sufficient to convince the reader that Dr. Kinglake's new views regard, not the phenomena, but the terms by which they are distinguished; and the mode in which he explains away those facts, which are within the experience of every practitioner, will be easily anticipated. Proceeding in this verbal illusion, he gives them another *name*, and believes that they do not exist. It is true indeed, he acknowledges, that there are disorders of the viscera, as well as of the constitution at large, which accompany the local paroxysm, or which succeed to, and alternate with it. But these are not gouty. They are only complaints, which, in such circumstances, 'arise from different states of sympathetic energy, and visceral susceptibility for associative or sympathetic impression.' P. 38.

'The erratic, or misplaced gout, has no admissible significancy in either the theory or practice of the disease. It implies visceral or systematic affection, arising from its declining or shifting station on the joints. This resolves itself wholly into the greater [*more*] or less transient effects of sympathetic irritation.

'If, in these circumstances, either the brain or any other vital organ be affected to the extent of inflammatory excitement, the effect will not differ from that of common inflammation. It cannot be what is termed gout, as the brain, as well as every other vital organ *is destitute of the ligamentous and tendinous structure*, necessary to that sort of inflammatory affection.

'Misplaced gout then is a misnomer; when it holds not its natural situation, when it occupies not its indispensible structure, its existence is no where but in *granular fiction*.' P. 42.

The fiction, we believe, is of Dr. Kinglake's creation, and

he is its principal dupe. It is difficult indeed to conceive, that, admitting in these explicit terms the occurrence of those phenomena, which are connected with inflammatory or local gout, he could suppose that the invention of a different name constituted the discovery of a difference in their nature; or that he could thus deduce any inference as to a difference of practice. Had he shewn us, that those affections of the system or of particular viscera seldom or never supervene to the suppression of the local disease; or that the general apprehension of practitioners is carried to an extent, which more accurate observations do not justify: or had he ascertained, and pointed out to us, any circumstances which might guide our prognosis with greater certainty, as to the probable occurrence of those affections: or lastly had he taught us how the danger of their occurrence, where it existed, might be obviated or diminished; he then might have drawn, with justice, the conclusions which he now assumes, and recommended with safety the practice which he founds upon that assumption. We opened his volume with the hopes that all this had been done; and we still think that nothing less than this can justify a practical innovation, which, in the general opinion, supported by the authority of Sydenham and of Cullen, is replete with danger. The connection of a visceral or constitutional disease with the suppression of the external inflammation, is the point in question. If a dangerous or fatal disease in the stomach frequently ensues on the sudden removal of the inflammation of the foot, it is of no importance in the theory or practice of the latter, whether there be ligament and tendon in both parts, or whether the diseased actions be in both cases similar. This truth appears to us too obvious to be dwelt upon. But it may be remarked, that Dr. Kinglake has fallen into an error, in supposing that repelled gout, as it is called, consists of inflammation in all instances. In the stomach it is more commonly a spasmodic affection or a state of atony, and syncope occasionally accompanies it.

Dr. Kinglake's next position is, that gout is essentially the same with all other forms of inflammation, which are distinguished only by the structure of the parts inflamed.

'Different degrees of inflammatory affections of the ligaments and tendons have been erroneously supposed to be essentially distinct diseases, and have accordingly received such respective denominations, as have been held to be appropriate: thus an inflammation on those parts, arising from general causes, is at one time distinguished by the term rheumatism; at another, when the inflammatory irritation has resulted from external violence, particularly that of extension, it is named sprain. It will require no extraordinary skill in independent thinking, to perceive the perfect identity of

these several nominal states of inflammation, and to refuse assent to the prevailing prejudice, that they are essentially different.' P. 10.

With the same 'skill in thinking', he remarks, P. 16, that lumbago, sciatica, and white swelling of the joints, 'are various examples of inflammatory excitement, of the same structure as that which is the seat of gouty irritation; and these acknowledge no other difference than what consists in degree and situation.' And in support of these observations he frames a law of nature: 'It is a law in the organic movements of the animal economy, not only that similar structure necessarily evolves similar action, but that the healthy, as well as distempered conditions of that action, are also associatively bound in indissoluble participation.' This sweeping generalization is, in our opinion, equally inconsistent with that accuracy of research, which can alone contribute to accurate arrangement, or a good theory of diseases, and with an appropriate application of remedies. We know nothing of morbid action, but from its appearances, relative connections, and consequences; and these should be all carefully marked, and all comprehended in our view of any particular disease. If we limit our enquiries to the one or the other, our knowledge will be necessarily incomplete. Thus, admitting for a moment that in those two *degrees* of ligamentous inflammation, which are commonly called white swelling and gout, the appearances or local symptoms should be undistinguishable, it would be careless and unphilosophical in the extreme to class them together at once, without regarding the collateral circumstances;—the very obvious difference in the state of the constitution at large;—the different states of the viscera in particular, and their sympathies with the local disease;—the hectic, and the slow imperfect suppuration, which uniformly terminates the one case, and the very peculiar deposition which is consequent to the other. These different changes in the fluids secreted, these distinct products, which result from the morbid actions of parts possessing the same structure, seem to us to imply a difference in the nature of those actions, and therefore to justify a difference of treatment. They are extremely adverse, in our opinion, to Dr. Kinglake's law just quoted. We shall therefore conclude this topic,—after expressing some doubts, whether 'inflammations of the most specific nature, with respect to cause, such as variolous, vaccine, venereal, scrofulous, cancerous, &c. are perfectly similar in the effect of excessive excitement, and *are curable in the same way*,' (P. 37)—with recommending to Dr. Kinglake a serious perusal of the observation of Lord Bacon, which he has very appropriately prefixed to his treatise:—'Medicina, in philosophia non fundata, res infirma est.'

The author's observation (p. 34) would appear *à priori* to be extremely just; to wit, that an early removal of the gouty paroxysm would contribute to prevent that lameness and distortion of the parts, which frequent and protracted fits produce, and that 'with the avoidance of those local injuries will be connected a constitutional escape from the morbid sympathies, and the visceral affections, which lingering and aggravated inflammation is apt to induce.' We heartily wish that experience may support this conjecture, as well as the safety of an early suppression of the local disease. But, after all, the preservation of the constitution must probably depend on the preventive means, which are mentioned in a subsequent chapter.

The causes of gout are the subject of discussion in Chap. III. As Dr. Kinglake considers the disease as simple inflammation, all the ordinary causes of inflammation are enumerated in his list of remote causes of gout. We would willingly quote the doctor's words, in order to afford our readers a specimen of his 'skill in thinking,' of the perspicuity of his conceptions, and of the simple and intelligible style in which he delivers them, but must content ourselves with transcribing his account of the proximate cause.

'The proximate cause of gout results from the aggregate efficiency of the remote causes, and is truly the disease itself. This efficiency or proximate cause, by which the disease is constituted, consists in an agitated and an increased degree of vital or repulsive motion in the affected parts.

'By vital motion is meant a repellency, subsisting between the constituent particles of all matter. This innate power or property is, by a law of nature, spontaneously evolved from atomical surfaces, and assumes character and determinal force, when issuing from the congeries, or combination of material substances, which forms specific or particular structure.

'The exertion of this universally repellent power, in the organic fabric of the animal economy, is life, or vital motion. The action of this power denotes itself in animal feeling as heat; an undistinguishable identity, therefore, with respect to the object, subsists between what has been variously denominated repulsive motion, vital action, and heat. These several modes of the same thing arise from the different circumstances in which it is operative. Repulsive motion is the natural efficiency of matter, and universally pervades every conceivable atom; vital motion is the organic efficiency of matter, and heat is the impression only, which that power makes on animal sensation.

'In this view of the nature of vital power, *it will be easy to perceive* the ground of its morbid excitement in gouty inflammation, as well as in every other variety of disease; it also instructively developes and explains the real cause of all the distressing torture occurring in inflammatory gout, to consist in almost a combustive degree of redundant heat, or repulsive motion.' p. 76.

These observations fully justify the author's claims to novelty. We know not, indeed, whether his theory, his philosophy, or his taste, is the most truly original. And as to the air of obscurity, which hangs over the above hypothesis, and which may be said to render it almost incomprehensible, it was no doubt a part of the author's design; since obscurity, according to Burke, is a characteristic of the sublime, and Tacitus considers it as a source of general admiration. The practical conclusion, however, is sufficiently obvious. Gout is a sort of combustion;—cold water is the natural antagonist to fire;—therefore cold water must be the proper *extinguisher* of gout. Q. E. D.

It would be difficult to offer a serious comment upon this luminous theory. In a subsequent paragraph it becomes still more mystical; for the doctor discovers a super-abundance of heat, where it is neither to be detected by the sensations, nor by the thermometer! either a *painful* or heated sensation serves to mark morbid deviation from the standard temperature; and though excessive heat should not be thermometrically discoverable at the surface, *it actually prevails*, as the necessary effect of commotion; and its dissipation, or transference, by cooling means, will most effectually restore the motive power to the duly repulsive or healthy harmony. P. 80.

In the next section we are directed in all instances to apply cold water to gouty inflammation, regulating the degree of the application by the degree of the local inflammation and pain. We are informed of no other limitation nor direction. 'It should not be forgotten,' we are told in one paragraph, 'that the object to be effected is literally the extinction of fire:' and in the next it is said, that, 'as gouty excitement is kindled only by excessive heat, it is solely this exuberance that is the object of reduction.' P. 84. In addition to this, the internal use of cold water, and the careful avoidance of all stimulating food, and fermenting liquors, are prescribed. 'Both the local and general mode of reducing morbid heat, here recommended, must be understood to be as strictly applicable to every shifting or sympathetic attack on a fresh joint, as to the original seizure.' P. 87. Yet with a gross inconsistency, we apprehend Dr. Kinglake occasionally combines with these refrigerant operations, stimulants no less powerful than opium, camphorated tincture of opium, and ammoniated tincture of guaiacum. He employs these medicines, very judiciously, in those instances of old and protracted gout, where there is considerable debility and irritability of the system; and it is probable that their stimulant effects may have counteracted the deleterious operation of his antiphlogistic plans in such constitutions. He con-

cludes this long chapter with an ample store of declamation against the folly, stupidity, and irrationality of medical practitioners in persisting in their routine of stimulation, and shutting their eyes against the light of nature and of his theory.

Section 5th, though it contains no *new views*, comprehends a full and judicious statement of the means of prevention in the intervals of gout, such as have been recommended by the best practitioners, from Sydenham downwards.

The appendix, which occupies more than half the volume, contains a considerable number of cases, related by the author, and by other practitioners, in which the free application of cold water was attended with invariable success: no instance at least is mentioned, in which any untoward symptom occurred; and in two or three there had been repeated attacks, and the constitution was debilitated. Several cases of acute rheumatism are also related, in which the external use of cold water was equally beneficial. The number of these cases, we must do Dr. Kinglake the justice to add, is such as to lead us to doubt, whether the common fears of repulsion, &c. are not carried to too great an extent. We therefore the more ardently wish, that Dr. Kinglake and his correspondents had been more particular in their detail of symptoms, and of the circumstances of the patient's constitution in each case. The histories are sufficiently numerous to excite some scepticism as to the foundation of the current opinion, and some degree of confidence in the remedy proposed; but they are far too vague and inaccurate to lead to any just conclusion, or to afford even the groundwork of a satisfactory induction. The experiments must be repeated by more acute and philosophical enquirers than Dr. Kinglake and his correspondents, before the idea of danger can be justly confuted. We have only to add, that the declamation, sarcasm, and abuse which the author pours forth most abundantly in his notes to the appendix, serve but to weaken his credit, and to degrade both himself and his cause. But 'Tempus omnia *revelat*,' as he very classically observes; and we cordially hope that future investigation will confirm the safety and utility of his practice.

ART. XI.—*An Account of Two Cases of Gout, which terminated in Death, in Consequence of the external Use of Ice and Cold Water. By A. Edlin.* 12mo. 1s. 1805.

ART. XII.—*A Reply to Mr. Edlin's Two Cases of Gout, &c. &c. By Robert Kinglake, M. D.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray. 1805.

ONLY one of the cases in question occurred under Mr. Edlin's personal observation; and, like those in Dr. Kinglake's

appendix, it is related in too general terms. A medical practitioner was attacked with an inflammation in his foot, which he believed to be gout. He applied cold water to the part freely, and was speedily relieved; but a sense of coldness at the stomach, faintness, fluttering pulse, and coldness of the extremities supervened, which were twice removed by strong stimulants, but on the third attack, proved fatal.

Dr. Kinglake replies to every paragraph contained in this pamphlet, in a very angry strain: and it is remarkable, that the very fault which is so conspicuous in his own book, and so completely fatal to his own doctrines, is one of the first which Dr. Kinglake discovers in the narration of Mr. Edlin; viz. the omission of the particular circumstances of the patient's constitution, as well as of the specific appearances in the case. It must be admitted, with Dr. Kinglake, that this omission renders any conclusion nearly nugatory; but it tends, in a vague way, to counteract the vague evidence, which he had brought forward on the opposite side of the question. Dr. Kinglake presumes to censure in strong terms the stimulant practice, which was employed on the accession of the *retrocedent* paroxysm; but had he been acquainted with the nature of those diseases of the stomach and system at large, which succeed to the repulsion of gout, and which he very erroneously supposes to be always inflammatory, he would have withheld that censure, which appears to be altogether unmerited.

On the whole, we can neither coincide with Mr. Edlin, in invariably proscribing any particular treatment, in forms of disease *nominally* the same; nor with doctor Kinglake in his invariable use of any one remedy under these circumstances. We have no doubt, that there are cases of gout, in which the refrigerant practice may be eminently useful, and others, in which it will be extremely deleterious. It remains for future observers to point out the appearances, which may direct our steps. In the mean time the advocates of Dr. Kinglake's practice will do well to attend to the discriminative observations of Celsus, who recommended the use of cold water, with these judicious limitations; 'Ubi dolor vehemens urget, interest, sive tumor is sit, an tumor cum calore, an tumor jam etiam obcaluerit.' Lib. iv. c. 24. In the first case, he advises the use of *warm* fomentations; in the second, that 'in aqua quam frigidissima articuli contineantur;' and in the last, cool applications only. In addition to this, we apprehend, they will consider the strength or debility of the constitution, the previous number of attacks, and the tendency to affections of particular viscera. To adopt any remedy in any disease without considerations of this kind, is arrant blundering empiricism. And Mr. Edlin's case, uncircumstantial as it may be,

and more especially the fatal case lately published by Mr. O'Neil in the Medical Journal, afford but too obvious proofs, that those rational cautions are in this instance indispensable.

ART. XIII.—*Letters written during a Tour through South Wales, in the Year* 1803, *and at other Times; containing Views of the History, Antiquities, and Customs of that Part of the Principality, &c. By the Rev. J. Evans.* 8*vo.* 8*s.* Baldwin. 1804.

MODERN tourists have of late years so successfully copied the bombast and fustian of modern novelists, that the reviewer almost dreads the hour when he is compelled to reading, which rarely excites any emotions but those of disgust. He who passes a leisure week in a state of restless migration through a small portion of a county, must now give his travels to the world; must tell them of all that the eye could rest on in a walking tour of an hundred miles: how the morning sun shed its first beams upon his knapsack: that the countrymen he met could neither read nor spell: that on the margin of the sea he heard a scream, which he afterwards discovered proceeded from a gull: that the weather was warm, they sky serene, the scenery grand, the churches pretty, and the walk fatiguing. Loose traditions are detailed for history: country prejudices for philosophy: the observations are alternately minute and superficial: anecdotes are told with an affected oddity to secure that interest, which of themselves they are not calculated to excite: grammatical inaccuracy is combined with pedantry and affectation; and the memoranda of the pocket-book embellished, not with references to works of solid learning and intelligence, but with phraseology and consequential trifling, borrowed from the trash of a circulating library.

When we meet with a work that is an exception from this general character, like the traveller who finds an unexpected fountain in the desert,

'We bless our stars, and think it luxury.'

Such, indeed, is the case with the work before us. It manifests a degree of knowledge and talent that we do not often meet with in *a Tour*; and though in many parts there appears a hurry of composition, and a negligence of language, it has been evidently much indebted to the researches and reflections of the closet. It abounds not only in correct and curious description, but in lively and judicious remarks upon ancient history and manners; and will repay both the casual and scientific reader for perusal. The pleasure which

the author received from the romantic scenery of North Wales, excited a strong desire of visiting the *southern* parts of the principality; the more varied history of which, its mixed population, and extent of maritime boundary, seemed likely to afford materials of at least equal interest with its grand and romantic neighbour.

To accompany Mr. Evans through his tour would be impossible. We shall therefore select a few specimens of his work, and consign it to the candour of the public. One we have chosen as the description of a ruin, known no doubt to many of our readers, *Caerdiff Castle.*

'The entrance into the castle is by a bold Gothic gateway, furnished with two portcullises and massy gates. The ruins of the castle have been repaired and modernized under the present proprietor lord Mountstewart, baron Caerdiff. The keep, which stands in the centre of the inclosed area, is a handsome octangular tower; and a high terrace is carried round the inside of the whole extent of the embattled walls that surround it: but the modernization of the present mansion, and the close-mown grass and gravel walks of the area, but ill-accord with the stately architecture and ivied walls of this proud pile, which has withstood the storms of seven centuries. The internal part of the present house remains in an unfinished state. In the dining-room and saloon are several good paintings of the Windsor family, ancestors of the marchioness of Bute, done by Kneller, Dahl, and Vandyke; with a curious family piece of seven figures, in the best style of Hans Holbein.

'A melancholy circumstance attaches to the history of this castle, which casts a gloom over the recollection. The unjust imprisonment and barbarous treatment of Robert Curtoise, duke of Normandy, by his cruel and unnatural brother Henry I. The prince had displayed eminent courage and abilities in heading the crusade to the Holy Land; and, in consequence, was fixed upon by the confederate leaders to be the king of Jerusalem. Whether he had an eye to the crown of England, then vacant by the death of his brother Rufus, or foresaw the difficulties attendant on a crown in a distant country, not yet established by right or conquest, or what motive was the cause of his refusal, is not apparent. The religieux of the time did not fail to consider his want of zeal as the cause, and, arrogating the privilege of heaven, to assert, "that as he refused to join the cross to the crown, the cross was given him without it: that he never after was successful in any thing he undertook; and that the frowns of heaven were distinctly visible through the future period of his life." But this is taking an undue liberty with the providential government of the world. Respecting individual judgments, it behoves us to be sceptical; and, on this occasion, rather to shed a tear over the hard fate of so brave a man, and indulge a just indignation at the cruelty that could appoint it. That he experienced a miserable reverse of fortune, was

for years confined in this place a prisoner, and found no rest till he arrived where the wicked cease from troubling, is a melancholy fact. But we should hope, for the sake of Henry and of man, that the details of history have been exaggerated;* which say, that he was confined in a miserable dungeon, a few feet square, with light only sufficient to make darkness visible; and that, on his attempting to escape, he was deprived of sight, at the command of his obdurate brother, by the application of heated brazen basins to his eye-balls; by which the optic nerves were destroyed! He fell at length a sacrifice to the unnatural cruelty of a brother; and was buried in Gloucester cathedral, where his effigy, carved in Irish oak, is still shewn, as a monument more characteristic of his fortune than his birth, by the side of another to the memory of king Edward II. a prince as unfortunate and as ill-treated as himself!

'This castle, situated in the midst of the Anglo-Norman territory, experienced but few of those incidents so common to many others. In May, 1645, it was garrisoned by the Welsh loyalists for the king, but in August the following year, after sustaining a short siege, surrendered to the parliamentary forces.'

From the numerous illustrations of our ancient manners, we have extracted the anecdotes of *Falconry*, once a favorite pastime with the English; our Saxon ancestors probably brought it with them from their native woods; and even as late as the reign of Henry III. the best hawks were brought from Norway. The amusement was hardly obsolete till the reign of Charles II.

'Inclosures and gradual refinement of manners have greatly tended to contract the circle of rural sports, and abate the general ardour for the pleasures of the field. Among many others that have become obsolete is falconry, which formed a principal amusement of our ancestors. A nobleman and his hawk in our day would be an awkward conjunction, whereas a few centuries ago a person of rank scarcely ever stirred without this bird on his hand; and this appearance in ancient paintings is a criterion of nobility. Harold, when going on his embassy to the Norman court, is painted embarking with his hawk in one hand and a dog under his arm, and in a painting of the nuptials of Henry VI. a noble attendant is represented in the same manner: for in those times it was thought sufficient for a person of high birth *to carry his hawke fair*, and leave the accomplishment of *letters* to those of inferior rank. (Vid. Caxton.) Training of this sagacious bird Spencer makes his gallant Sir Tristram boast:

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* 'Lord Lyttleton says, that Henry made his brother as comfortable as the circumstances of imprisonment would admit, and that several actors were kept in pay to amuse his mind by various kinds of buffoonery; a species of entertainment which Robert is said to have been more partial to than more important concerns.'

'Ne is there hawke which mantleth her on perch,
Whether high tow'ring or accoasting low;
But I the measure of her flight doe search,
And all her prey and all her diet knowe.'

The peregrine, and falcon gentil were then considered presents worthy of kings, and used as general douceurs when fines were to be remitted or privileges obtained. Thus Geoffry Fitzpierre gave two good Norway hawks to obtain the liberty of exporting one cwt. of cheese; and Nicholas the Dane was to give the king a hawk for liberty every time he landed to traffic through England. Sir John Stanley had a grant of the Isle of Man from Henry IV. to be held of the king his heirs and successors, by homage and service of two falcons on the day of his or her coronation. We cannot be surprised, therefore, when these birds were held in such high estimation, if falconry soon became an expensive sport,* and principally confined to wealth and power. Among the Welsh, the king's falconer ranked as the fourth officer of the court; but although thus honoured, he was prohibited more than three draughts of *cwrw* from his horn, lest he should be incapacitated for the charge of his hawks. The mode of training and other interesting particulars you will see in Willoughby's Ornithology. †'

From the twelfth letter we shall select the description of the ruined castle of Cilgerran.

'We now ascended the river, the bed of which grows narrower, and the banks soon assume the shape of cliffs, two or three hundred feet high, covered with forest trees and brush-wood from their summit to the margin of the river. Amid these, on a bare projecting rock, stand the ruined towers of Cilgerran Castle, than which, viewed from the water either above or below, there cannot be a more interesting prospect. The high perpendicular cliffs, with huge trees growing out of their fissures; the dense wood beneath; the bold rock standing as an advanced guard; the ivy-mantled ruins on its summit; and the crystal waters of the Teifi reflecting, as in a mirror, the impending shades, and rolling over large fragments of rock beneath, through a narrow chasm, form a group of objects that please while they astonish the beholder.

'You must by this time be almost satiated with the recital of castles built, besieged, and razed; but it would be unpardonable not to take some notice of this fortress, which, from the importance of its central situation, and the strength of its position, was an object of envy to the contending parties. Roger de Montgomery laid the foundation of a castle here; but on the grant of this country (the property of Cadwyan ap Blethyn) by Henry I. to Gilbert

'* Even so late as the time of James I. we are informed that Sir Thomas Monson gave a thousand pounds sterling for a cast of hawks.'

'† Falconers had a patroness of their art whom they addressed in their songs, as hunters do Diana: which was *Tibba*, who lived at Darmundcaster, and died A. D. 660. (Vid. Index Expurgatorius.)'

Strongbow, earl of Strygil, he erected this and the castle of Aberystwith, to secure the possessions he had so unjustifiably obtained. This apparently impregnable strong hold was taken by Rhys, prince of South Wales; and twice in vain assailed by the Anglo-Normans, who found the Welsh as obstinate in defence as desperate in attack. It must, however, subsequent to this period, have been taken and razed, as it is observed by Powel that, A. D. 1222, William Marshal, earl of Pembroke, laid the foundation of a castle here, and left his soldiers, while he visited England, to complete the work. This was the building, the ruins of which we were now surveying: two circular towers and a few of the walls are the whole of the remains, and the mutilated fragments only serve to form an interesting feature in the delightful landscape.'

At the close of the fourteenth letter, the author once more crosses the Severn, and fills the fifteenth with general observations. These are principally geological: and among a variety of curious remarks exhibit a concise view of the history of mineralogy and mining, from the earliest periods.

In some few places the language might admit of improvement; the errata, too, are very numerous; and a work which comprises so much both of information and entertainment should not have been published without an index. These defects, however, in a work of such considerable merit, may be pardoned.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

RELIGION.

ART. 14.—*A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of Leeds, at the Visitation of the Right Worshipful Robert Markham, A. M, Archdeacon of York. By John Sheepshanks, A. M. Curate of Trinity Church, in Leeds, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge.* 8vo. 1s. Faulder. 1805.

'FOR though I preach the gospel, I have nothing to glory of; for necessity is laid upon me: yea, woe is unto me, if I preach not the gospel.' (1 Cor. ix. 16.) From this text, and from the example of St. Paul, and the principles of conduct by which that great apostle was actuated, the preacher deduces in this discourse the obligation of christian ministers to preserve an union of humility and zeal in the discharge of their sacred duties. He then

proceeds to consider more minutely how a minister of the church of England, building upon this foundation, would naturally be led to demean himself in the exercise of several of his most important public and professional labours. The parts of a clergyman's duty which are in this view noticed by Mr. Sheepshanks, are principally the following: public prayer, the rules and principles of preaching, his conduct towards his fellow ministers, and towards dissenters, and the vigilance which he ought to exert, lest when he has preached to others, he *himself should be a castaway*. In every one of these divisions there are several remarks which are well worthy of the notice both of the clergy and laity. We recommend the following extract from the part respecting prayer, as containing a *profitable doctrine*, and very *necessary for these times*.

'Let us more nearly contemplate the house of God, when his minister addresses himself in the name of multitudes kneeling around him unto the throne of the heavenly grace. Led thereto by the divine promise that where two or three are gathered together in his name, there also will Christ be in the midst of them, the preacher confesses sin, implores mercy, proclaims belief, and offers up praise for himself and for his congregation. It is now that pardon should be so supplicated, that all may be forgiven, and the divine protection so entreated, that all may be preserved; every word should now, if possible, be personally applicable and personally interesting to each individual assembled. It is now therefore that the devout minister has every feeling awakened and every faculty exercised, not in the devising of terms wherein to speak, not in unauthorised confidence, that whatsoever ought to be spoken shall in that hour be given unto him, but in giving impressive and unaffected utterance to the language of a prescribed liturgy; of a liturgy not less the admiration of the enemies of our church than it ought to be the consolation of her friends.

'The enumeration of human wants and infirmities (it hath been justly observed) is here complete; a christian can have few things to ask of God, or to deprecate, that he will not here find expressed with equal tenderness and simplicity.* Let but the minister then perform his task, his arduous task, of first justly comprehending, and then devoutly uttering the words here appointed him; and he may rest assured he hath preached the gospel, yea the whole gospel of Christ in the language most profitable to his hearers. Let him but shew he feels as well as understands the transitions here made from one office of devotion to another, from confession to prayer, from prayer to thanksgiving, from thanksgiving to reading of the word;* and unto every one that hath ears to hear, I repeat the gospel will have been preached.—But, and if, through any impatience to quit this subordinate service, as he may falsely deem it; if anxious to assume the superior office of teaching, reproving, exhorting in his own name; if he coldly, or negligently perform in haste the previous services of our liturgy,

* 'Paley's Moral and Political Philosophy.'

woe is and must be to him, for he preacheth himself and not the gospel. He must be conscious, moreover, of having directly betrayed the cause of the established church; against her his offence is of the deepest dye; he hath given cause of triumph and traduction to her enemies, her sons he hath taught to despise her essential and discriminating rites. Be he assured then, no orthodoxy displayed in the pulpit can atone for heresy like this, no arguments however laboured, no declamation however animated, can adequately supply the place of that eloquence with which the liturgy of our church pleads the purity of her own faith, and the piety of her own worship.*'

The remarks in p. 18—19 deserve to be well weighed by the partisans of sir Richard Hill and Mr. Overton.

From this excellent discourse we do not hesitate to pronounce, that Mr. Sheepshanks is a true gospel preacher; and we rejoice to see the name of so able and judicious a writer added to the number of those ministers who are anxious chiefly to preach, to the best of their power, the doctrines of scripture according as they are professed in the church of England, without any further solicitude to ingraft into the church the exotic names whether of Calvin or Arminius.

ART. 15.—*A Declaration on certain Points of religious Doctrine, as it was delivered extempore by William Dennison, a plain Farmer of Saffron Walden.* 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1805.

Endued with no common abilities, but untutored by education, Mr. Dennison declares his sentiments on certain religious points in a manner at once familiar and clear. Assailed, as the established church is, from various quarters, it was with no small degree of pleasure we perused the efforts of this worthy farmer in her behalf; and we received the greater satisfaction, because from the title we were led to believe it one of those numerous effusions which the illiterate, itinerant, and self-commissioned preacher is daily *delivering* to his ignorant auditors. The simplicity of his style and reasoning may be conceived from the following extract:

'Some persons do not clearly distinguish between the *purchase* and the *promise* of salvation. I will endeavour to set this matter clear, by a plain similitude. Suppose a well-disposed gentleman was to purchase some of the necessaries of life to give away to objects of distress (which is similar to Christ's purchasing salvation for us, though infinitely inferior to it); this gentleman might require the objects of his bounty to be sober, diligent, and industrious; such being the only characters worthy of favour. On these conditions he might promise to relieve them. Their being sober,

* 'It had been unnecessary to extend these observations unto the offices of our book of common prayer; I may here however just remark, that the same praise is due to their compilers, the same happy effects to be looked for from their animated and devout administration, the same evils to be induced, and the same guilt incurred by their hasty and careless recitation.'

diligent, and industrious, however, would have nothing to do with the purchase made by their benefactor, although the required duties being sincerely performed, they would have a title to his promises. Jesus Christ is the sole purchaser of salvation; and he had a right to make promises of it in the gospel to whom he would. Now he promised it to none but his servants, disciples, and followers; to none but those, who through love to him followed his example and kept his commandments.'

ART. 16.—*Reflections upon the Chapters of the New Testament, selected from the writings of approved Divines of the Church of England: intended for the Use of the Poor, and such Persons as may not have the Means of consulting larger Works of this Nature.* 8vo. 4s. 6d. Knight *and* Triphook. 1804.

A very useful publication, which we can safely recommend, as well adapted for the purpose for which it is designed. The anonymous author of it deserves great praise.

ART. 17.—*The Dignity of Human Nature, an Essay.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Clarke. 1805.

The object of this puny essay is to exalt human nature in her own esteem, and to prove that man was not born in guilt, but that he commenced existence 'pure as the lily breaking through its green covering.' The author praises the established church, and tells us that 'her purity of doctrine attracted the writer of these pages from a more ancient and magnificent temple to the humbler rites of her altar;' but he hints that she wants the last touches of reform—that something is yet requisite to the completion of this sacred edifice.

In illustration of the opinions here advanced, the writer appeals to ancient and modern history, as well as to natural religion; and he adduces from the scriptures quotations which, he thinks, agree with his own sentiments. He does not, however, attempt to refute, neither does he notice, those numerous texts which are conceived to prove the doctrine of original or birth-sin. We may, therefore, fairly say to those who shall read this pamphlet, 'Audi alteram partem.'

ART. 18.—*The Destruction of Jerusalem, an absolute and irresistible Proof of the divine Origin of Christianity: including a Narrative of the Calamities which befel the Jews, so far as they tend to verify our Lord's Predictions relative to that Event. With a brief Description of the City and Temple.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sael *and* Co. 1805.

'Christ,' says Jortin, 'had foretold the destruction of Jerusalem so expressly, that if he had failed, his religion could not have supported itself.' To state more strongly, more clearly, than in these words, the importance of this prophecy, is impossible. It must then be matter of great joy and consolation to the rational believer in christianity that the providence of God hath been pleased to give us so complete evidence of its accomplishment. The testimony of Jo-

sephus, in his Jewish Wars, is every way unexceptionable. It is the testimony not only of an eye-witness, but of a Jew, of an enemy—and as such it is free from every vestige of suspicion. The prediction, therefore, and the completion considered together, are unquestionable proofs of the foreknowledge of Christ, and of the divine origin of christianity.

This subject has been discussed by some of the most distinguished divines with an attention, a minuteness, which leaves nothing to be added. Tillotson, Whitby, Lardner, Hurd, and Newcome, have each considered the question; but in large and expensive works, not in a separate treatise. The present writer is therefore very deserving of praise. By giving us the essence of the labours of these great men in a more accessible and familiar form, and in a style easy yet not vulgar, it is to be hoped he will contribute under the divine blessing—such are his excellent motives—to confirm the faith of the wavering christian, as well as to shake the vain confidence of the infidel.

The arch-infidel Voltaire, it is asserted (p. 73), has never had the temerity to insinuate against the prophecy, which is the subject of our author's consideration, and which is contained in the gospels of Matthew (c. 24.), Mark (c. 13.), and Luke (c. 21.), the charge of forgery or interpolation.

We transcribe the following extract from the 5th volume of bishop Watson's Theological Tracts.

'Jortin has well proved not only that the gospels in which the predictions of Christ relative to the destruction of Jerusalem are delivered, were written before that event, but that the predictions themselves could not have been inserted into the gospels as interpolations, after the event: the reader will not esteem this to have been an unnecessary labour, who recollects the confidence with which Voltaire, with a view probably of evading the force of the argument in question, declares that the gospels were written after Jerusalem was destroyed—sans doute après la destruction de Jerusalem.' Contents, page iv.

POLITICS.

Art. 19.—*A Review of the Papers on the War with Spain. By Allan Macleod, Esq.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ginger. 1805.

We wish gentlemen would learn

'to reason close,
And argue διαλεκτικῶς,'

there then would not be so many attempts made to force conviction down people's throats by incoherent declamation, unmeaning metaphor, and abortive attempts at wit. To us, and to Mr. Macleod, the propriety of a war with Spain may be very evident. But those who are of a contrary way of thinking, will not be induced to change their opinion by hearing the Prince of Peace called 'a vile stupid animal,' 'a low dull fellow,' and 'a rake-jakes poltroon.' This substitution of abuse for argument will convince no one of the justice of a Spanish war; nor will similar reflections upon lord Sidmouth, who, in Mr. M.'s opinion, ought to be called Lord of Peace, tend to demonstrate its policy.

Our late minister at Madrid, and his brother, Mr. B. Frere, are not spared. 'There are wonderful odd stories (says Mr. M.) related of this embassy. I give credit to very few of them, and will not incur the odium of promulgating what I do know. But it is worthy remark, that a work of conciliation, fit only for gray hairs, was intrusted to two lads, brothers, not the oldest of them hardly a quarter score years from the university. (Mr. M. writes good grammar and elegant English!)* Mr. Pitt, who is great in every thing, felt the folly of the appointment of the young men; he would have removed them, had not the war disposed of them otherwise.' The latter part of this assertion may or may not be true; but we know something of these *lads*, which may serve as a counterpoise to Mr. M.'s knowledge—and that is, that their abilities and character are such as need not fear any thing from the audacious inuendoes of the author of an ill-written pamphlet.

We cannot agree with Mr. M. that, situated as Spain is, she can entertain any very ambitious views, or cherish sentiments really hostile towards this country; in short we cannot discover that Mr. M. is either a good politician or a good writer; still we will praise him for his patriotism, for he appears to be a well-wisher to his country; we could desire, however, that these laudable sentiments had been delivered in a less Quixotic strain than what we find at the conclusion of his pamphlet, and which is worthy of Mr. M.'s favourite laughing-stock, 'of the very sublime manifesto of the very valorous gentleman, Generalissimo the Prince of Peace.'

ART. 20.—*Thoughts on Coalitions, with a Reference to the Present State of Parties.* 8vo. 2s. Ginger. 1805.

ART. 21.—*Observations on the Operation of the New Corn Bill, with a few Salutary Hints to the Promoters of that impolitic Measure. By William Curtis.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan *and* Maxwell. 1804.

ART. 22.—*Thoughts on the Propriety of granting a pecuniary Remuneration to the West India Dock Directors; with a View of the Situations of the Directors of the Bank of England, of the East India Company, and the Imperial Assurance Office, as far as they apply to that Proposition.* 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1804.

ART. 23.—*Reply to a Pamphlet entitled, 'A Calm and Dispassionate Address to Sir Francis Burdett, Bart.' By Rugbiensis.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stewart. 1804.

ART. 24.—*A few brief Remarks on a Pamphlet, published by some Individuals, supposed to be connected with the late Board of Admiralty, entitled, 'Observations on the Concise Statemen' of Facts, privately circulated by Sir Home Popham, &c.' in which the Calumnies of those Writers are examined, exposed, &c. &c. By Æschines.* 8vo. 2s. 1805. Sold by all the Booksellers in Piccadilly, Pall-mall, and elsewhere.

GLAUCUMQUE, Medontaque, Thersilochumque.

* Before Mr. Macleod makes assertions, he should learn to be more correct in his information.

LAW.

ART. 25.—*Reports of Cases argued and determined in the High Court of Admiralty, in the time of the Right Honourable Sir William Scott. By Ch. Robinson, LL.D. Vol. V. Part. I.* Butterworth. 1805.

The want of a regular code of marine ordinances in this country, has been a frequent and just subject of complaint both at home and abroad. If any thing be likely in no inconsiderable degree to supply the deficiency, it is the accurate collection and preservation of the learned judgments of sir William Scott. Dr. Robinson's fourth volume completed the cases which occurred during the last war. The recommencement of hostilities has opened sources of fresh materials. From the importance of the subject, and the accuracy with which the judgments are reported, the work deserves every encouragement from the commercial world, as well as from gentlemen of the profession. It is a circumstance highly flattering to the character of the learned judge, that out of 270 reported cases, only 20 have been carried before the Lords Commissioners of Appeal, in all of which, with a trifling exception, his judgments have been affirmed.

MEDICINE.

ART. 26.—*Essays on the Diseases of Children. Essay II., on the Bowel Complaints more immediately connected with the Biliary Secretion, and particularly of Atrophia Ablactatorum, or Weaning Brash. By John Cheyne, M.D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. Imperial* 8vo. 15s. Longman.

FIFTEEN shillings for sixty-seven pages! This is typography run mad. Book-making is now become a sister art with play-writing, and decorations are the principal passports to fame. The printer and the engraver supply for the author in one instance, what the mantua-maker and scene-painter contribute in the other; and the *value* of the product, as in other manufactories, is proportionate to the quantity of manual toil. We approve, however, of doctor C.'s choice; and we recommend this *imperial* paper, on account of its stubborn inflexibility, to all future essay writers, as a security against any unlucky attempt to use them as *envelopes* for pepper,

'Et quicquid chartis amicitur ineptis.'

Dr. Cheyne treats of three diseases, of which two are discussed in the compass of a few pages. These are, a fatal species of jaundice, which occurs a few days after birth, the proximate cause of which is unknown; and the bilious diarrhœa, called by the nurses *green scour*. The former is deemed incurable; and the practice employed in the common routine of the profession, is recommended by the author for the latter. Dissection throws no light on the nature of this species of jaundice; yet Dr. C. has subjoined an engraving of the appearances in one case, which is equally useless

and indistinctly executed. We can scarcely conceive that it is from the inimitable pencil of Mr. Charles Bell.

The consideration of the Atrophia Ablactatorum occupies the greater part of the volume. By this term Dr. C. wishes to designate a very common disorder, to which the vulgar in Scotland have given a name, but which medical writers, he observes, have 'not identified as a particular disease.' Its symptoms are a chronic diarrhœa, emaciation, restlessness, thirst, and fever. The stools are at first green; afterwards they vary much in appearance, being 'sometimes of a natural colour, at other times slimy and ash-coloured, and sometimes lienteric.' The cheeks are often flushed; 'but the most characteristic symptom of this disease, is a constant peevishness, the effect of incessant griping pain, expressed by the whine of the child, but especially by the settled discontent of the features.' (p. 17.) This appearance, if we can trust our own observation, is common to all the forms or degrees of chronic irritation in the bowels, including the worst examples of *tabes mesenterica*. This congeries of symptoms is very familiar to us, as well as the successful remedy (calomel in small doses) which Dr. C. mentions as a discovery of his own; although he acknowledges that Drs. Armstrong and Underwood recommend it in a similar disease, which they have vaguely described; the latter indeed calls it a 'sovereign remedy.' The disease, we have often remarked, is not obviously connected with worms, dentition, or mesenteric affection; and probably the author is correct, in attributing it to a sudden change of aliment, in consequence of weaning. The proximate cause, however, remains in obscurity. On dissection, the liver is found enlarged, and the mesenteric glands are usually somewhat increased in size. The intestines are found contracted in several parts, and there are frequently slight intus-susceptions. A good engraving of these appearances is annexed.

It may be remarked, that the disease, which is distinguished in part by 'thirst and fever,' and a 'hectic blush,' would be more appropriately classed under the genus *tabes*. The two plates are erroneously numbered five and seven, and the explanations six and eight.

ART. 27.—*Pharmacopœia Nosocomii Regii Edinburgensis. Small 8vo.* 3s. Murray. 1804.

The sale of this little compendium was formerly confined, we believe, to the pupils of the royal infirmary at Edinburgh. It contains an excellent collection of simple and elegant formulæ, adapted to the practice of a public hospital. In this edition the nomenclature of modern chemistry is used with respect to the saline and mineral substances, and that of the Linnæan system in regard to the articles of animal and vegetable production; an improvement which will, no doubt, be gradually adopted by the profession.

DRAMA.

ART. 28.—*The Honey Moon: a Comedy, in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal Drury Lane, with universal Applause. By the late John Tobin, Esq.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman. 1805.

Reviewers, long confined to the censure of a tedious succession of wretched comedies, are naturally delighted when an opportunity of praise is presented. 'In such a disposition,' says a learned critic, 'a performance with but the slightest share of merit, is welcomed with no small share of applause; the production is compared not with our ideas of excellence, but the exploded trash it succeeds.' Impressed with these sentiments, we perused the Honey Moon of Mr. Tobin with no inconsiderable degree of satisfaction. Despising the track of modern dramatists, he treads in the paths of our old favourites Shakspeare and Jonson, and presents us with a comedy written in blank verse, a task which no one for very many years has ventured to undertake. Originality indeed is a feature of which this piece cannot boast; yet it is not a servile copy, though it is a close imitation of the story of Catherine and Petruchio. If the author cannot claim the praise of serving up a dish of his own invention, he has dressed it in so classical a taste, that we receive from it more pleasure than from an unpolished clumsy novelty. The stage has of late been so disgraced with the miserable offspring of vulgarity and insipidity, that it seemed as if respectable writers disdained to tread in a path so degraded; from this cause the Honey Moon 'throws its beams As shines a good deed in a naughty world.' The language and sentiments, where they are original, are those of a gentleman and a scholar: in many instances they are very poetical; nor do we think our readers will be displeased with the extracts which we shall subjoin.

Rolando, when he cautions his page, says,

'But hark, Eugenio! 'Tis a wicked place;
You'll meet (for they are weeds of ev'ry soil)
Abundance here of—women;—keep aloof!—
For they are like the smooth, but brittle, ice,
That tempts th' unpractis'd urchin to his ruin.
They are like comets, to be wonder'd at,
But not approach'd: eccentric in their course,
They sweep in dazzling state before men's eyes,
But carry sure destruction in their train.—
Go not within their reach!'

The duke's soliloquy is not unworthy of notice:

'So, thus begins our honey moon.—'Tis well!
For the first fortnight, ruder than March winds,
She'll blow a hurricane. The next, perhaps,
Like April, she may wear a changeful face
Of storm and sunshine:—and, when that is past,
She will break glorious as unclouded May;

And where the thorns grew bare, the spreading blossoms
Meet with no lagging frost to kill their sweetness.—
Whilst others, for a month's delirious joy,
Buy a dull age of penance; we, more wisely,
Taste first the wholesome bitter of the cup,
That after to the very lees shall relish;
And to the close of this frail life prolong
The pure delights of a well-govern'd marriage.'

His description too of a husband is very good.

'*Duke.* Nay, no resistance!—for a month, at least,
I am your husband.
'*Juliana.* True!—and what's a husband?
'*Duke.* Why, as some wives would metamorphose him,
A very miserable ass indeed!—
A sweating slave to dig the precious ore
Which their high-feeding vanities make current;
A fence to stand betwixt them and dishonour,
Which if their bounding wantonness o'erleaps—
A thing more loathsome and detestable!—
Mere fuller's earth to bleach their spotted credit!
A blotting paper to drink up their stains!
'*Juliana.* True, there are many such.
'*Duke.* And there are men
Whom not a swelling lip, or wrinkled brow,
Or the loud rattle of a woman's tongue—
Or, what's more hard to parry, the warm close
Of lips, that from the inmost heart of man
Plucks out his stern'st resolves—can move one jot
From the determin'd purpose of his soul,
Or stir an inch from his prerogative.—
E'er it be long, you'll dream of such a man.'

From these specimens our readers will entertain no mean opinion of this author's abilities: the principal imperfections we shall notice are in the character of Rolando: we are taught to respect him before he is introduced to us; he is represented as a soldier and a man of honour; consequently we expect that consistency and dignity should mark his character; but we are displeased by finding him very often peevish and ridiculous. The character of the Apothecary is not distinguished by any particular traits of humour. With the Duke's representative, Jaquez, Mr. Tobin has succeeded better.

To close our account of this play, its merit does not consist in strong delineation of character or humour; but in the language, which is generally elegant, and often poetical. Mr. Tobin in the prologue is said to be numbered among the 'sacred dead;' we are not from this idea, or from the old adage 'De mortuis nil nisi bonum,' induced to bestow undeserved encomiums on this piece; but from a comparison of the stuff which has been forced upon us for many, many a day, are decidedly of opinion, that great praise

is due to him for the bold attempt he has made to revive the drooping state of theatrical performances. If the deceased Mr. Tobin were really the author, we have reason to regret his loss, and exclaim with our old friend—'Quis desiderio sit pudor aut modus Tam chari capitis!'

POETRY.

ART. 29.—*Rhymes on Art: or the Remonstrance of a Painter. In two Parts. By Martin Alexander Shee, R. A.* 8vo. 5s. Ebers. 1805.

We congratulate Mr. Shee upon his first appearance as a poet, whose talents in painting we have much admired. The avowed intention of his poem is to recommend the productions of our native artists to the amateurs of painting, at least to a share of that patronage which the works of the foreign schools, ancient and modern, so exclusively obtain at present from the English. There is a very sensible and well-written preface, with many apposite notes to this purpose; and the verses too speak the same language still more forcibly. But the performances of Mr. Shee himself, and many of his cotemporaries, in all the different branches of painting, are the best arguments of the injustice of this neglect. Never was there a stronger instance of insensibility to living merit, than that shewn in the unproductive raffle for Love-à-la-Mode. Many of the painters of the present day, though we cannot boast a rival to Hogarth, may however complain like him, with justice, 'Post cineres gloria sera venit.' We have only to lament that extravagance in painting, which increases yearly; keeping pace, as it would seem, with the outré style, and other sad corruptions of music and of poetry. Well may we exclaim—'Unde illa priorum simplicitas?' We subjoin some specimens of Mr. Shee's poetic talents.

'Insult! to think the land where Shakspeare sprung,
The heaven *he* breath'd—where seraph Milton sung!
In strains more sweet than erst from fabled shell
Of Orpheus old, or fam'd Amphion, fell:
Where Pope, where Dryden swept the sounding lyre,
With Maro's melody, and Homer's fire!
Where Science (long on weak Conjecture's wing,
A thwarted falcon, flutt'ring from the string),
Loos'd by her Newton's hand, first shot on high,
And perch'd amid the mansions of the sky:
Insult! to think, where valour, virtue sway!
Where beauty sheds around her brightest ray!
Where Reason boasts how Locke—how Bacon shone!
And triumphs on her philosophic throne:
Insult! to think this garden of the globe,
This spangle shining bright on Nature's robe,
From finer joys in cold seclusion plac'd,
A kindless clime beyond the beam of taste!
On wings of fire sustain'd, th' immortal mind,
Nor clime controls, nor fog, nor frost can bind.

Where freedom, man's most cheering sunshine, glows,
Whether on Lybian sands, or Zemblan snows;
Where life exults, with each bold feeling fraught,
And Fancy fearless springs the mine of Thought:
There blooms the soul, there, every muse delights,
Swells her full strain, and soars her highest flights:
Luxuriant there, from moral roots arise
Pure joys which compensate inclement skies;
Spontaneous sweets that torrid tracts endear,
Redress the cold, and calm the raging year.'

'Hogarth, with thee! satiric Humour fled,
Proclaims our graphic moralist is dead;
Who Sampson-like, in conscious might secure,
Burst the strong bonds that meaner minds endure;
Disdain'd the beaten track, the common crown,
And forc'd an untried passage to renown,
To nature true, his sportive pencil mov'd,
Taught while it trifled, pleas'd while it reprov'd:
Struck by the harlot's woes, with shame oppress'd,
Reviving virtue wins the wanton breast;
No more the midnight scene to riot warms,
The rake reviews his *progress*, and reforms.
'The cottage group their Gainsborough bemoan,
And with the Muses' sorrows mix their own;
Sad o'er his grave, regardless of the storm,
The weeping Woodman bends his toil-worn form;
His dog half-conscious hears his master mourn,
Looks in his furrow'd face, and whines forlorn.
There too, Lavinia her swell'd heart relieves
In grateful tears, and for her patron grieves;
His model now no more—no more to share
The picture's triumph, or the painter's care.
'But lo! where Reynolds lies, without a stone
To mark his grave, or make his relics known;
No pomps of death the pious eye engage,
No trophies testify a grateful age;
No sculptur'd lays of love memorial flow,
To indicate the hallow'd dust below:
But he, whose genius rais'd his country's name,
Refin'd her taste, and led her arts to fame;
Whose powers unrivall'd Envy's self disarm'd,
Whose pen instructed, and whose pencil charm'd;
He, summon'd hence, submits to nature's doom,
And sleeps unhonour'd in a nameless tomb.
Yet nobler trophies sooth his hovering shade,
Than e'er sepulchral pageantry display'd:
Genius, like Egypt's monarchs timely wise,
Constructs his own memorial ere he dies;
Leaves his best image in his works enshrin'd,
And makes a mausoleum of mankind.'

We wish Mr. Shee would not use the epithet 'kindless,' and some others like it; at least not more than once. This our toleration may, perhaps, allow to a favourite word, however foolish. Every book has some darling absurdity in expression. It is very well when an author is not 'all over tremblingly alive,' like the prolific ladies of the Minerva Press.

NOVELS.

ART. 30.—*Can We doubt it? or, The genuine History of Two Families of Norwich. By Charlotte Bournon-Malarme, Member of the Academy of Arcades at Rome. Translated from the French, by Mrs. Villa-Real Gooch.* 3 *vols. small* 8*vo.* 10*s.* 6*d.* Crosby. 1804.

Lulled into security by each successive interval between the productions of Mrs. Gooch, the public just begins to hope it never shall behold her name in print again, when 'the last of the Villa-Reals' suddenly resumes the pen, destroys all our pleasing expectations of having bidden her a last adieu, and obtrudes some fresh absurdity upon her unwilling readers. Often have we been tempted to wish (never more strongly than in reading the works of Mrs. Villa-Real Gooch) that the limbo of vanity were a real habitation for the monster-breeding authors of the age; or that in some fairy paradise they might give vent to the crudities of their imaginations, obtain subsistence and applause, nor any longer annoy with their nonsense the plain matter-of-fact citizens of the world in the common occupations of this sublunary life. Happy would be the flight of these poetasters, play-mongers, and novelists, for the daughters and apprentices of industrious tradesmen! Happy for the rising generation in our religious and learned seminaries! Happy above all for us, the whippers-in of the literary pack, if none but the true-bed sons of inspiration, aided by laborious study, were engaged in the pursuit of science, and the cultivation of the liberal arts! But alas! we are condemned to pluck the bramble and the rose together; to separate their intertwisted leaves; to consume the one in the fire of angry criticism, and to draw forth with a judicious hand the lurking beauties of the other. So latent, so refined, so imperceptible to our ordinary senses are the beauties of Mrs. Gooch's language (for she is only answerable, as she informs us, for the translation of the present work), that we must content ourselves with pointing out the defects only—these are gross and palpable. The most prominent is the accumulation of unnecessary words; occasioned perhaps by a laudable desire of correctly rendering the little happinesses of the French original; possibly, indeed, by a natural wish of lengthening out the story into three volumes. Next to the quantity of Mrs. Gooch's words, we have to object to their quality, which is of the most inferior order. Her style is feeble, unimpassioned, and inelegant; void of ornament, yet not perspicuous.

With regard to the tale itself, which professes to be a genuine history, we have only to observe, that the marvellousness of its incidents gives the lie to the title-page; and that such outrages as are here related to have been offered with impunity to a noble family,

should have been committed in this country and of late years, we are certain is most improbable; and we believe, notwithstanding the wholesale assertions of Charlotte Bournon-Malarme, member of the academy of *Arcades* at Rome, retailed by Mrs. Villa-Real Gouch, authoress of that genuine history, 'the Memoirs of her own Life,'—setting aside, we say, the evidence of these twin *Arcadians*, most untrue.

MISCELLANIES.

ART. 31.—*Anecdotes of Eminent Persons; comprising also many literary Fragments, Biographical Sketches, Dialogues, Letters, Characters, &c. in Prose and Verse.* 2 *vols.* 8vo. 14*s.* Lackington. 1805.

'When the following collection (says the editor) was first suggested, it was intended that it should consist entirely of original matter, arranged under certain heads; so that at least, it would have some title to order and novelty; but a severe fit of sickness, which befel the collector, put an end to a plan that in all probability would have had some claim on the approbation of the reader.'

With such an advertisement, we were surprised at the effrontery which could obtrude upon the public eight hundred pages of matter, which had already appeared in many different shapes; in anecdotes, in Anas, in Olla-podridas, and under a thousand other nonsensical denominations.

Whatever tends to instruct and entertain, assume what garb it may, we have much satisfaction in recommending; but is the public, already inundated with a deluge of absurdities, to pay twelve or fourteen shillings to 'the cheapest bookseller in the world' for the perusal of what they have repeatedly read before, because his collector forsooth has had a fit of illness? We are extremely sorry for indisposition in any case; but the public were not clamorous for the work before us; and they would have waited patiently for the collector's recovery. A lamer excuse for a bad book we never saw; and whether it be true or false, it is a barefaced imposition upon the public, and one of those wretched expedients too frequently adopted, to foist upon the world a publication, of the demerits of which the editor cannot but be conscious.

We are informed (page 1) that one part of the original design is still adhered to; the insertion of such papers as tend to promote virtue and the love of our country. This is a very laudable design; but we cannot imagine such stories as 'the Romance of Thomas Sainvitty;' 'the two uncles and two nephews;' 'stealing dead bodies;' or 'the lines by Dr. Charlton;' with numberless others, too tedious to particularise, conducive either to improvement in virtue or patriotism. We guard our readers against the purchase of this book.

ART. 32.—*An English Spelling Book, with Reading Lessons adapted to the Capacities of Children; in three Parts, calculated to advance the Learners by natural and easy Gradations, and to teach Orthography and Pronunciation together. By Lindley Murray.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Darton *and* Harvey. 1805.

Mr. Murray, whom we have had so frequent occasion to commend, does not disdain the humblest yet most irksome office in the scholastic department, we mean that of the Abecedarian; he accordingly has composed one of the best elementary books for children in the English language, with the exception of the last fifty pages, which appear to us to be beyond the capacity of infancy.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE presume that the manuscript dedication prefixed by Dr. Montucci to his Treatise on Chinese Literature, was not intended for *us*. We refer him to our advertisement, which he will find on the cover of the last two numbers of the Critical Review.

Dr. Jenkin's publication arrived so late, that it was quite out of our power to comply with his request.

We received a very civil letter from Mr Bagley. His meritorious exertions through life deserve infinite praise. It gives us great pleasure to find that his pupils have found that benefit from his late work which we, from dullness probably, not from inattention, confess ourselves unable to derive. When the next publication, of which he makes mention, is submitted to us, he may depend upon its being treated with candour, and we hope it will be in our power to give a more favourable account of it than we did of his last. We take this opportunity of hinting, that the Latin substantive *cor* makes *cor* in the accusative case: φωνᾶντα συνετοῖσιν.

In reply to 'A Friend of Mr. Mawman's, and One of the Writers in British Purity,' we observe, that if the hints contained in the first page of his letter were intended for *us*, 'he *is* quite out of the secret;' if for our predecessors, or any other review, they are needless; there is no possibility of *our* falling into the error alluded to, inasmuch as in our case there is no *proprietary* bookseller, the Critical Review being the *sole* and *exclusive* property of one individual. With regard to the other part of his letter, we are astonished that he should have expected us 'to apply any expedient to lift off the unfair extinguisher which has been placed upon his work.' To attempt to satisfy all the authors who have been aggrieved by the severity, just or unjust, of our predecessors, would obviously be an endless task. In the threatened appeal to the public *we* have no interest, as our responsibility did not commence till the first day of February last.

We are much gratified by the renewed attention of 'A Lover of Truth,' and will cause an answer to be left for him at Mr. Mawman's, with the above superscription.